

A photograph of a classroom scene. A female teacher with long dark hair, wearing a light blue denim shirt, is smiling and holding a globe. A young girl in a light blue shirt is pointing at the globe. Other students are visible in the foreground, seated at desks. The background features a green chalkboard with various drawings and equations, including a lightbulb, a triangle, and the equation $E=mc^2$.

3e

A Course for TEACHING ENGLISH LEARNERS



Lynne T. Díaz-Rico

To readers of *A Course for Teaching English Learners*

The best teachers are those who are professional learners, whose knowledge continues to grow throughout a life-long career.

Our colleagues who are master teachers are often called on to draft curricula for their teaching team, write grant proposals for school enrichment programs, publish articles in professional newsletters and journals, and make presentations at conferences.

As you develop this level of expertise, *A Course for Teaching English Learners* remains a valuable resource. The book provides a wealth of strategies for promoting literacy and oracy in English, and offers suggestions for meshing content and language acquisition across all types of lessons.

One of the greatest challenges facing teachers is to create supportive partnerships with families. This is an opportunity for teachers to reach beyond the classroom to forge enduring bonds with the larger community. To further this outreach, I have included many practical ideas for involving parents and the community in the service of students' school success.

It is my hope that this new edition will be a text that helps to guide your teaching, so you can, in turn, help your English learners to enjoy their schooling experience. I believe you will find it valuable to keep this book as part of your professional library, so that it will be available as a resource as you develop your teaching practice.

Please feel free to contact me at diazrico@csusb.edu to share your thoughts, ideas, and successful strategies.

Sincerely,
Lynne T. Díaz-Rico



Third Edition



A Course for Teaching English Learners

Lynne T. Díaz-Rico

California State University, San Bernardino

Director and Publisher: Kevin M. Davis
Executive Portfolio Manager: Drew Bennett
Managing Content Producer: Megan Moffo
Content Producer (Team Lead): Faraz Sharique Ali
Content Producer: Deepali Malhotra
Portfolio Management Assistant: Maria Feliberty and Casey Coriell
Executive Product Marketing Manager: Christopher Barry
Executive Field Marketing Manager: Krista Clark
Manufacturing Buyer: Deidra Headlee
Cover Printer: Phoenix Color/Hagerstown
Cover Design: Pearson CSC
Cover Art: Simon McGill/Moment/Getty Images
Full Service Vendor: Pearson CSC
Full-Service Project Management: Pearson CSC, Martin 'Tinah' Aurea and Kabilan Selvakumar
Printer/Binder: LSC Communications, Inc.
Text Font: Albertina MT Pro

Credits and acknowledgments for material borrowed from other sources and reproduced, with permission, in this textbook appear on appropriate page within text.

Copyright © 2020, 2012, 2008 by Pearson Education, Inc. 221 River Street, Hoboken, NJ 07030. All rights reserved. Manufactured in the United States of America. This publication is protected by Copyright, and permission should be obtained from the publisher prior to any prohibited reproduction, storage in a retrieval system, or transmission in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or likewise. For information regarding permissions, request forms, and the appropriate contacts within the Pearson Education Global Rights & Permissions department, please visit www.pearsoned.com/permissions. PEARSON and ALWAYS LEARNING are exclusive trademarks in the United States and/or other countries owned by Pearson Education, Inc. or its affiliates.

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Names: Díaz-Rico, Lynne T., author.
Title: A course for teaching English learners / Lynne T. Díaz-Rico.
Description: Third edition. | New York: Pearson Education, Inc., [2020] | Includes bibliographical references and index.
Identifiers: LCCN 2018056474 | ISBN 9780134878249 | ISBN 0134878248
Subjects: LCSH: English language—Study and teaching—Foreign speakers. | English language--Study and teaching—United States. | English language--Study and teaching—Handbooks, manuals, etc.
Classification: LCC PE1128.A2 D448 2020 | DDC 428.0071—dc23 LC record available at <https://lccn.loc.gov/2018056474>

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Lynne T. Díaz-Rico is professor of education at California State University, San Bernardino. She has worked with public and private teacher education institutions and agencies around the world to prepare teachers for classrooms with diverse students and English-language pedagogy. Her books *Crosscultural, Language, and Academic Development Handbook* and *Strategies for Teaching English Learners* are widely used to educate English-language development teachers. Her research interests are in pedagogies for multilingual classrooms; creative, innovative English teaching strategies; critical discourse analysis; and visual literacy.

BRIEF CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE	English Learners and Their Teachers	1
CHAPTER TWO	Language Structure and Use	15
CHAPTER THREE	First- and Second-Language Development Related to Academic Achievement	47
CHAPTER FOUR	Programs for English Learners	81
CHAPTER FIVE	English-Language Literacy Development, Lesson Planning, and Specially Designed Content Instruction in English	107
CHAPTER SIX	English-Language Oracy Development	167
CHAPTER SEVEN	English-Language Literacy Development	191
CHAPTER EIGHT	Assessment of English Learners	231
CHAPTER NINE	Culture and Cultural Diversity and Their Relationship to Academic Achievement	257
CHAPTER TEN	Culturally Inclusive Instruction	299
	Bibliography	328
	Name Index	340
	Subject Index	344

DETAILED CONTENTS

Preface x

PART ONE Teaching English to English Learners

CHAPTER ONE

English Learners and Their Teachers 1

Teaching English Learners 1

English Learners in U.S. Schools 2

- Demographics of English Learners in the United States 2
- Spanish-Speaking English Learners 4
- Asian/Pacific English Learners 4
- Putting Faces to Demographics 5
- English Learners with Learning Challenges 5
- English Learners: An International Profile 5
- Teaching with Integrity 7
- The Willingness to Be Fully Human 7

- High Expectations for Students 8
- Being “Fully Qualified” 8
- Maintaining Professional Ethics 8
- Being an Intercultural Educator 9
- Clarity of Vision 9

The Professional Preparation of Teachers to Educate English Learners 10

- Career Preparation for Teachers 10
- Professional Organizations for Teachers 12
- Information about Teaching English Learners 12

CHAPTER TWO

Language Structure and Use 15

Human Language 15

- Linguistics Helps Teachers to Understand English Learners 16
- Language Creates Both Equality and Inequality 16

Language Universals 16

- All Languages Have Structure 17
- Language Is Dynamic 17
- Language Is Complex 17

The Building Blocks of Language 18

- Phonology: Phonemes, Phonemic Sequences, and Phonemic Awareness 18
- Phonology: Stress, Pitch, Rhythm, and Intonation 21
- Morphology: The Words of Language 22
- Using Morphemes in Teaching 24
- Syntax: The Sentence Patterns of Language 24
- Explicit Teaching of Syntax 25
- Semantics: The Meanings of Language 26
- Semantic Challenges in English 27
- Acquiring Vocabulary 28
- Semantic Shifts 30

Language Functions and Academic Discourse 30

- Academic Language Functions 30
- Oral and Written Discourse 32
- The Discourse of Academia 32
- Oral Discourse in the Classroom 33

Pragmatics: The Influence of Context and Nonverbal Language 37

- Registers: Appropriate Language 38
- Nonverbal Communication 40
- Evaluating the Pragmatic Features of School Programs 41

Dialects and Language Variation 41

- Dialects and the Education of English Learners 41
- Common Features That Constitute Dialects 42
- How Dialects Exhibit Social and Ethnic Differences 43
- Attitudes toward Dialects 43
- Dialects and Style 44
- Vernacular Dialects and Language Teaching 44

CHAPTER THREE

First- and Second-Language Development Related to Academic Achievement 47

Processes and Stages of Language Acquisition 47

First-Language Acquisition 48

Second-Language Acquisition 49

First- and Second-Language Acquisition:
Commonalities 51

Theories of Second-Language Acquisition 53

Former Theories That Still Influence Current
Practice 54

Contemporary Theories of Language Development 57

Factors That Influence Second-Language Acquisition 64

Psychological Factors: The Learner's Background 65

Psychological Factors: Social–Emotional 68

Psychological Factors: Cognitive 71

Sociocultural and Political Factors That Influence
Instruction 72

PART TWO Instruction and Assessment

CHAPTER FOUR

Programs for English Learners 81

The History of Multilingual Competency in the United States 82

Early Bilingualism in the United States 82

The Struggles for Language Education Rights in the
Twentieth Century 83

Legal and Legislative Mandates Supporting Language
Education Rights 84

Federal and State Requirements for ELD Services 85

Every Student Succeeds Act 89

The Florida Consent Decree 89

Bilingual Education Laws in Various States 90

Williams et al. v. State of California et al. 90

The Politics of Bilingual Education 91

Support for Heritage-Language Proficiency 91

Support for Two-Way (Dual) Immersion 92

English-Only Efforts 92

Language Revitalization 93

Equity, Policy, and Empowerment Issues Related to English Learners 93

Components of ELD Programs 95

Immersion Bilingual Education 95

Transitional Bilingual Education 98

Structured English Immersion (SEI) 99

Newcomer (Front-Loaded) English 100

English-Language-Development (ELD) Programs 101

Parental Rights and Communicating with Families 104

Parental Rights 104

School–Community Partnerships 105

CHAPTER FIVE

English-Language Literacy Development, Lesson Planning, and Specially Designed Content Instruction in English 107

Why Adapt Content Instruction for English Learners? 108

Instructional Planning and Organization for ELD and SDAIE 108

Planning for Standards-Based ELD and Content
Instruction 111

A Model for SDAIE 118

Teaching with SDAIE Strategies 122

Cooperative Learning 122

Activating Connections to Students' Previous
Knowledge 128

Differentiating Instruction to Meet Students' Learning
Diversity 130

Promoting Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency	131
Modifying Instructional Delivery without Simplification	132
Scaffolding: Temporary Support for Learning	136
Providing Graphic Organizers	137
Using Assessment to Promote Learning and Reflection	142
Effective Resource Use in ELD and SDAIE	143
Selecting and Using Appropriate Materials	143
Modifying Materials for Linguistic Accessibility	145
Culturally Appealing Materials	145
Technological Resources to Enhance Instruction	145
Examples of SDAIE in the Content Domains	147
Bridging: Accessing Prior Knowledge and Building Schemata	148
Strategic Teaching Using Multimodalities	152
Access to Cognitive Academic Language Across the Content Areas	152
Scaffolded Content Instruction	154
Guided and Independent Practice That Promotes Students' Active Language Use	158
Resources for Independent Practice	159
Formative Assessment and Reteaching Content	162
Summative Assessment of Content Lessons	162
Instructional Needs Beyond the Classroom	165
Teacher Commitment	166

CHAPTER SIX

English-Language Oracy Development 167

The Focus on Communicative Interaction 168

What Is Communicative Competence?	168
The Cognitive Perspective	169
An Interlanguage Perspective	169
A Translanguaging Perspective	170
Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills	171

Listening 172

Listening for Beginning Comprehension	173
Listening to Repeat	173

Listening to Understand: The Task Approach	174
Listening for Communication	174
The Listening Process	176

Speaking, Communication Skills, and the ELD Standards 178

Speaking in the ELD Standards	178
Developing Oral Language	178
The Speaking Process	184

CHAPTER SEVEN

English-Language Literacy Development 191

Meeting the Varied Literacy Needs of English Learners 192

Connections among Oracy, Literacy, and Social Functions 192

English for Empowerment	193
An Integrated Approach to Oracy and Literacy	194
Reading First in the Primary Language	194
ELD and ELA Standards in Reading	198

Foundations of Literacy 198

Purposes for Reading	198
Standards-Based Reading Instruction	199
Transfer of Reading Skills	199
Developing Word Analysis Skills	199
Developing Reading Fluency	203
Reading Processes	206

Developing Reading Comprehension	208
Developing Literary Response and Analysis Skills	213
When Reading Intervention Is Needed	213
Secondary-Level Content Reading	214

Writing and the English Learner 215

Preparing Generation 1.5 for College Writing	215
Writing as a Social Construction	216
Stages of Writing Development for Young English Learners	216
The Importance of Writing in the Native Language	217
Handwriting in English	217
Writing Genres and Prompts	218
The Writing Workshop	218
Issues with ESL Writing	221

Writing in the Age of the Internet	221
The Role of Grammar	223
Benefits of Explicit Instruction of Language	223
The Role of Feedback in Explicit Teaching	224
The Supplemental Role of Implicit Learning	225
Teaching Grammar	226

Content-Based English-Language Development	227
Collaboration and Reciprocity	228
CBI-ELD: Lesson Planning	228
Literacy in the Cyber Age	228
Possibilities for Alternative Literacies	230

CHAPTER EIGHT

Assessment of English Learners 231

Principles of Standards-Based Assessment and Instruction 232

Standards-Based Education: Federal Government Mandates	232
Standards for English-Language Development	234

Role, Purposes, and Types of Assessment 237

State-Adopted Tests under Federal Testing Mandates	237
Identification, Placement, Instruction, Progress Tracking, and Redesignation/Reclassification of English Learners	238
Issues of Fairness in Testing English Learners	243
Types of Classroom Assessments for English Learners	245
Selecting and Using Appropriate Classroom Assessments	248

Assigning Grades to English Learners	249
Reporting Assessment Results to Parents	250
Test Accommodation	250

Language and Content Area Assessment 250

Combining Language and Content Standards and Learning-Strategy Objectives	250
English-Language-Development Assessments	251
Interpreting the Results of Assessment	251

Special Issues in Assessment 252

Academic and Learning Difficulties That English Learners May Experience	252
Identification, Referral, and Early Intervention of English Learners with Special Needs	253
Teaching Strategies for the CLD Special Learner	254

PART THREE Culture and Inclusion

CHAPTER NINE

Culture and Cultural Diversity and Their Relationship to Academic Achievement 257

Cultural Concepts and Perspectives 258

What Is Culture?	258
Key Concepts about Culture	260
Looking at Culture from the Inside Out	267
Cultural Diversity: Historical and Contemporary Perspectives	268
Political and Socioeconomic Factors Affecting English Learners and Their Families	270
Educational Issues Involving English Learners beyond the Classroom	271

Cultural Contact 277

Concerns about Cultural Adaptation	277
------------------------------------	-----

Processes of Cultural Contact	278
Psychological and Social-Emotional Issues Involving Cultural Contact	279
Resolving Problems of Cultural Contact	280

Cultural Diversity in the United States 281

The Demographics of Change	281
Migration and Immigration in the United States	282
Contemporary Causes of Migration and Immigration	283
The Cultural and Linguistic Challenges of Diversity	286

Intercultural Communication 290

- Cultural Diversity in Nonverbal Communication 290
- Cultural Diversity in Verbal Communication 292
- Strategies for Intercultural Communication in the School and Classroom 295
- Teaching Intercultural Communication 296

Investigating Ourselves as Cultural Beings 296

- The Personal Dimension 297
- Cultural Self-Study 297
- Participating in Growth Relationships 298

CHAPTER TEN**Culturally Inclusive Instruction 299****The Role of Culture in the Classroom and School 299**

- Acknowledging Students' Differences 300
- The Alignment of Home and School 300
- The Value System of the Teacher and Cultural Accommodation 300
- Adapting to Students' Culturally Supported Facilitating or Limiting Attitudes and Abilities 310

Educating Students about Diversity 311

- Global and Multicultural Education 311
- The Multicultural Curriculum: From Additive to Transformative 312
- Validating Students' Cultural Identity 313
- Promoting Mutual Respect among Students 314

Learning about Students' Cultures 315

- Ethnographic Techniques 315
- Students as Sources of Information 316
- Families as Sources of Information 317
- Community Members as Sources of Information 317

- The Internet as an Information Source about Cultures 317

Culturally Inclusive Learning Environments 317

- What Is a Culturally Supportive Classroom? 317

Family and Community Involvement 319

- Value Differences in Family and Community Support for Schooling 319
- Myths about Families and Other Communication Barriers 320
- Enhancing Home–School Communication 320
- Family–Teacher Conferences 321
- How Families Can Assist in a Child's Learning 321
- Internet Resources for Family Involvement 322
- A Model of Home–School Relationships 322
- Family Members as Cultural Mediators 323
- The Home–School Connection 325
- Involving the Family and Community in School Governance 326

Bibliography 328**Name Index 340****Subject Index 344**

PREFACE

About This Book

To educate English learners, teachers need not only basic principles but also specific practices. This book is designed to help teachers become more effective in expanding English learners' access to the core curriculum, instructing all students with a rich and demanding curriculum, and making cross-cultural connections by means of teaching practices and curricular content. Coverage includes a broad foundation in second-language acquisition issues and techniques, the influence of culture on schooling, cultural practices of schooling, and the sociopolitical context of education, as well as strategies for teaching content subjects such as mathematics, sciences, and social studies.

A Course for Teaching English Learners offers an opportunity for educators to access in a single volume the information necessary to educate practicing and prospective teachers in principles for working with students who are English learners. Not only teachers, but also program coordinators, curriculum developers, administrators, and materials designers can use up-to-date research and methods to work successfully with this group.

This work contains the most recent teaching techniques, cultural knowledge, and language proficiency assessment strategies now available, and offers activities to help teachers better understand their English learners and connect with their families, communities, languages, and cultures. Readers of this book not only learn about theories of second-language acquisition but also how the theories are applied in the classroom, highlighting successful features of English-language-development programs and drawing examples from the classrooms of practicing teachers.

Chapter 1 surveys the demographics of English learners across the United States as well as the extent of the need for qualified teachers. Chapter 2 offers fundamentals in the nature of language, including its structure, function, and variation. Chapter 3 introduces language learning, comparing first- and second-language acquisition processes. Chapter 4 compares program models for educating English learners and includes a discussion of controversies about current legal requirements, best practices, and school reform efforts in the area of bilingual education.

Chapter 5, on English-language development and specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE), offers frameworks within which teachers can plan, implement, and assess their lessons. Chapters 6 and 7 address oracy and literacy development. Essentials of assessment follow in Chapter 8, which addresses issues of standardized testing under federal mandates and weighs the pros and cons of testing English learners for purposes of placement and evaluation.

Chapters 9 and 10, on cultural diversity and culturally inclusive instruction, bring to the fore best practices in motivating English learners toward high academic achievement in line with the values and practices of home and community.

Teachers who can plan and carry out effective instruction that incorporates knowledge of intercultural communication can be expected to build a base of personal knowledge about the ways in which language, content knowledge, culture, and schooling are connected. This book is designed to offer a solid foundation in core techniques, in a manner that balances a growth in theoretical understanding with exposure to effective practice. One goal of this course is to increase teachers' confidence in their teaching ability. Simultaneously, a focus on

issues of social justice and a moral commitment to democracy within the context of cultural values and individual rights and responsibilities brings to this book the themes that have sustained and inspired me throughout my professional life. I offer my thanks and tribute to colleagues in the profession of teaching English learners who have shared with me their like-minded dedication.

The methods and strategies included in this course reflect current practice in the field of teaching English learners. A carefully structured tool kit of strategies, with a clear process for use, permits educators to act clearly and consistently as professionals. The complex texture of native and target cultures, diverse languages, social and political forces, socioeconomic status, and individual differences in learners that one faces when teaching English learners demands continuous innovation and experimentation with teaching and learning strategies.

This book features specific, anecdotal documentation of the use and success of actual strategies in the context of the classroom. Examples in the book are drawn from classrooms spanning kindergarten through high school levels and across a variety of contexts. I hope that the reader as practitioner can apply these strategies with both immediate and long-term success.

Due to constraints of time and space, this book does not include an in-depth coverage of second-language acquisition theory, the complexity of which remains a fascinating subject of intensive empirical and theoretical study. I hope instead that the reader will become curious about the issues and research in this field and seek further education in this area.

New to this Edition

- **Chapter 1:** As English learners have become more common in school districts across the United States, various states have adopted new certification requirements for English-language-development teachers. Chapter 1 offers a description of these certification requirements for six states with large English-learner populations.
- **Chapter 2** augments the discussion of the structure of the English by displaying 16 new English words created in 2017, most of which were invented by combining existing English morphemes in new ways. Chapter 3 increases coverage of second-language teaching techniques by addressing current communicative and task-based learning methods. Chapter 4 addresses the English-language-development standards in various states.
- **Chapters 6 and 7** survey current English-language-development teaching techniques aligned with Common Core state standards; offer a translanguaging perspective on dual-language acquisition; discuss ways to infer word meaning from context while reading; and delve into technology-enhanced language learning with tips for technology-supported and online learning, including use of podcasts, mobile phone recording, and other Web media tools, and ways to teach reading in the era of mobile-phone multitasking. Capturing and maintaining the learners' focus on increasing English proficiency is always a challenge, but these chapters demonstrate that using technology tools is an increasingly successful means to teach English, using multiple-modality and cross-media activities for second-language acquisition.
- **Chapters 9 and 10** feature up-to-date demographic data that connect English learners with social and educational challenges such as poverty and segregated schools, factors that affect classroom achievement. These chapters expand the discussion of ways to enhance family-school connections by understanding the learners' home cultures and approaches to learning.

Acknowledgments

This book was made possible through the help of many people. I credit my editor Drew Bennett with the vision to foresee the publications needed by teachers of English learners. I wish to thank my colleagues in the field of teaching English to speakers of other languages and applied linguistics for their encouragement, including Shelley Wong, Gertrude Tinker-Sachs, Suchada Nimmannit, Su Motha, Theresa Austin, Ryuko Kubota, Natalie Hess, Lia Kamhi-Stein, Stephen Stoyhoff, Jun Liu, Sandy Briggs, Mabel Gallo, Liz England, Christine Coombe, and so many others. Thanks to my colleagues at California State University, San Bernardino, for their collegial support, including Nena Torrez, Lasisi Ajayi, Julie Ciano, Peggy Marcy, and Marina Estupiñan. I wish also to thank my colleagues in CATESOL for their dedication to this unique TESOL affiliate.

My sincere thanks go to the editorial staff at Pearson Teacher Education and to Diana Neatrou and the team at Omegatype Typography. Also my deep thanks to the reviewers, Dr. Phil Smith, University of South Florida; Dr. Daniel Gilhooly, University of Central Missouri; and Dr. Beatrix Burghardt, Texas A&M University, for their dedication and diligence.



English Learners and Their Teachers

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter, you should be able to . . .

- Compare demographic information about English learners in various U.S. states;
- Describe what it means to be an ethical teacher of English learners—to “teach with integrity”; and
- View the gamut of opportunities for teacher preparation to teach English learners.

Teaching English Learners

Teachers in elementary and secondary schools in the United States face an unprecedented challenge—educating the growing number of students whose families speak a language other than English or whose backgrounds are culturally diverse. In addition to accommodating recently arrived immigrants with limited English proficiency, schools need to offer a high-quality, college-bound curriculum to English-speaking students whose heritage is Native American or other long-time residents of the United States, including those who are long-term English learners and who have not yet achieved the distinction of being transferred out of English-language-development services.

In the face of this diverse linguistic and cultural terrain, the responsibilities of U.S. educators have become increasingly complex. Teachers must now modify instruction to meet the specific needs of culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students, especially English learners, using English-language development (ELD) techniques and other instructional adaptations to ensure that all students have access to an excellent education. In turn, educators are finding that these diverse cultures and languages add richness and depth to their teaching experience. Because the core of the teaching profession in the United States remains monolingual, teachers can

benefit from teacher education that includes specialized methods and strategies for the effective education of CLD students, especially those who have the potential for becoming fully bilingual.

Language learning is a complex process that forms the foundation for academic achievement. Competence in more than one language is a valuable skill. Students who come to school already speaking a home language other than English have the potential to become bilingual if schooling can preserve and augment their native-language proficiency. One exciting trend is the spread of two-way immersion (TWI) programs, which enable monolingual English-speaking students to learn a second language in the company of English learners.

This book uses the term *English learner* to mean “students whose first (primary, native) language is not English and who are learning English at school.” This chapter offers an overview of the demographics of English learners, a vision of the ethics involved in teaching English learners, and a view of the educational opportunities in the field of teaching English learners.

English Learners in U.S. Schools

Demographics of English Learners in the United States

The Office of English Language Acquisition (OELA) (2017) put the number of English learners (K–12) in the United States at 4.6 million for 2014–2015, about 9.4 percent of all students in grades K–12. In 2015, a record 63.2 million U.S. residents over the age of five spoke a language other than English (LOTE) at home. Across the United States, about one in five pupils in K–12 education goes home to a LOTE household.

From 2010 to 2014 the largest percentage increases in LOTE households were among speakers of Arabic (up 29 percent); Urdu (spoken in Pakistan, up 23 percent); Hindi (up 19 percent); Chinese and Hmong (spoken in Laos, both up 12 percent); and Gujarati (spoken in India) and Persian were both up 9 percent (Camarota & Zeigler, 2015). One must not assume these speakers of other languages are immigrants: Of the more than 63 million foreign language speakers, 44 percent (27.7 million) were actually born in the United States.

California has the highest percentage of public school students who are English learners (22.4 percent) (National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES], 2017a). In 2014–2015, public school English learners comprised more than 10 percent of students in the District of Columbia and seven states: Alaska, California, Colorado, Illinois, Nevada, New Mexico, and Texas. English learners comprised more than 6.0 percent of all learners in eighteen states, and lower than 3.0 percent in thirteen states, with Vermont (1.7 percent), Mississippi (1.6 percent), and West Virginia (1.0 percent) having the lowest percentages (NCES, 2017a). Between 2013–2014 and 2014–2015, thirty-seven states and the District of Columbia experienced an increase in the percentage of English learners, with the largest increase occurring in Nevada (1.5 percentage points, to 17.0 percent), whereas there was a decrease in thirteen states—the highest decrease being in Arizona. Table 1.1 summarizes a few states’ English learner population statistics; from the table, one can see that some states have large English learner populations that are also a significant portion of total learners; however, other states with small populations nevertheless have relatively large percentages of English learners.

California has more English learners than any other state, with 1.37 million in 2016. Texas is the next largest state in English-learner population, with almost 1 million, 18 percent of all Texas’s school-age population. As of 2014, Florida ranked third, with more than 265,000 English learners (Texas and Florida are expected to have continuous and rapid English learner enrollment growth). In California, Spanish registers as the largest primary language of English

TABLE 1.1 English Learner Populations in Various U.S. States (2014 data)

State	Number of English Learners	Percent of K–12 Students
California	1,390,316	22.4
Texas	772,843	15.4
Florida	252,172	9.2
Illinois	209,959	10.3
New York	186,694	7.1
Washington	107,197	10.0
Colorado	102,359	11.7
Nevada	74,521	17.0
Arizona	60,171	6.4
New Mexico	47,626	14.6
Alaska	15,078	11.5
District of Columbia	4,882	10.6

Source: National Center for Educational Statistics, 2016.

learners, with 83.5 percent in 2017a; Vietnamese is second with 2.2 percent. Other languages include Khmu, Albanian, Marshallese, and Chamorro.

For more information about U.S. states’ English-learner populations and resources, enter “Colorin Colorado” in a web-search engine, and access Ruiz Soto, Hooker, and Batalova (2015a).

English learners comprise a growing proportion of school children in the United States.



Weedezign/Shutterstock

Spanish-Speaking English Learners

The majority of households in the United States in which English is not spoken are Spanish-speaking (28.1 million). This may be because Latinos are the fastest-growing segment of the population, making up 17.8 percent of the U.S. population as of July 2016 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). By 2060, Hispanics are projected to constitute 30.6 percent of the U.S. population, rivaling Whites at 42.6 percent (Ewert, 2015) (the terms *Hispanic* and *Latino* are used interchangeably in the census reports)—so Spanish will sustain its place as the largest home language of English learners in the United States. Of the Spanish-speaking households, 66.1 percent are from Mexico or of Mexican American origin; 14.5 percent are from Central or South America; 9 percent are from Puerto Rico or of Puerto Rican origin; 4 percent are from Cuba or of Cuban American origin; and 6.4 percent are from other Hispanic/Latino origin. Latinos make up about 30 percent of the population of New York City (West & Alfaro, 2017), 39 percent of the population of California (Panzar, 2014), 47 percent of New Mexico, 39 percent of Texas (Pew Research Center, 2014), and 24.9 percent of Florida (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017).

In 2013, 71 percent of all Latinos were urban, and lived in one of the 100 largest counties of Hispanic population, especially those in California, Texas, and Florida (Brown & Lopez, 2013); more than 9 percent of all Hispanics in the United States live in Los Angeles County. Many Spanish speakers are poor—in 2015, 21.9 percent of all Latinos were living in poverty (Flores, López, & Radford, 2017) (compared with 7.7 percent of non-Latino Whites). In addition, of the 18.2 million Latino children under age eighteen (25 percent of the U.S. population of such children)—95 percent of whom are U.S.-born—62 percent lived in low-income families (Mather, 2016). Living in poverty increase the chance that such children face poor schools, health issues, and nutritional challenges, in addition to the need to learn English.

Asian/Pacific English Learners

The second largest non-English-speaking population comprises Asians and Pacific Islanders. In 2008, the Asian and Pacific Islander population in the United States numbered about 15 million, constituting 5 percent of the population (Asian Nation, 2010). *Asian* refers to those having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent, including Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam. *Pacific Islander* refers to those having origins in any of the original peoples of Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific islands.

Like Spanish speakers, the U.S. Asians (in 2017, 21 million, 6.5 percent of the U.S. population) and Pacific Islanders (in 2017, 1.5 million) once lived predominantly in metropolitan areas (in 2001, nearly 96 percent) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001). However, by 2012, almost half of this population had moved to the suburbs (Taxin, 2012). The Asian American population is growing faster than any other major ethnic or racial group: 42 percent of the 8.1 million people who came to the United States from a foreign country were from Asia in the years 2010–2016 (Learning English, 2017). In 2011, nearly 2.9 million people spoke some form of Chinese in the United States, whether Mandarin, Cantonese, or Formosan—the third-most spoken language in the United States (Floracruz, 2013).

By and large, then, in the United States, those who educate English learners are more likely to find employment in the states of California, New Mexico, New York, or Texas, or in central city schools, serving Hispanics or Asian and Pacific Islanders. Aside from this employment likelihood, however, demographics indicate that services for English learners are needed in every state and large city.

To educate English learners, resources are badly needed. However, many inner-city schools are faced with large numbers of poor children, fewer books and supplies, and teachers with less training and experience. Other English learners, particularly those Asians who live the suburbs, experience well-funded schools. Thus, excellence in education for English learners is frequently, but not always, compromised by the fact that some English learners may be poor and attending underfunded and poorly equipped schools.

Putting Faces to Demographics

English learners in the United States present a kaleidoscope of faces, languages, and cultures:

- Hayat, eleventh grade, refugee from Afghanistan, living in Oakland, California
- Rodica, eighth grade, adoptee from Romania, living in Kansas City, Missouri
- Viviana, third grade, second-generation Mexican American living in Prescott, Arizona, whose parents speak no English
- Hae Lim, second grade, visitor from Pusan, Korea, “temporarily” living with an aunt in Torrance, California
- Axlam, eleventh grade, attending high school in Lewistown, Maine, learning English in the hopes of soon enrolling in a local community college
- Lei Li, kindergartner, attending a neighborhood school in Amherst, Massachusetts, while her mother is an international student at a nearby university
- Tram, tenth grade, living in inner-city San José, whose parents speak Vietnamese but who has lived in the United States since he was two years old
- Augustín, fourth grade, a Trique Indian from San Juan Copala in the Oaxaca state in Mexico, who speaks Spanish as a second language and is learning English as a third language
- Juan Ramon, second grade, whose mother recently moved from San Juan, Puerto Rico, to live with relatives in Teaneck, New Jersey

Some of these students may be offered primary-language instruction as a part of the school curriculum, but those students whose language is represented by few other students in the school district face structured English immersion, with little support in their native language.

English Learners with Learning Challenges

Some English learners face academic learning challenges in addition to the need to acquire a second language. They may be diagnosed with learning disabilities and referred to special education services; they may suffer culture shock during the process of acculturation; or they may experience other difficulties that require counseling services or situations in which their families are not able to meet their social, emotional, or health needs.

Like their counterparts who are native-English speakers, English learners may require special services, including referral to gifted-and-talented programs, resource specialists, reading-resource programs, counseling, and/or tutoring.

English Learners: An International Profile

English is a fast-growing global language. In countries such as Canada, England, and Australia, immigrants study English as a second language, just as they do in the United States, making ESL a well-established curriculum in English-dominant countries. The term

TABLE 1.2 English-Learner-Related Terms

Term	Definition
English as a foreign language (ESL)	Classes for English learners who live in places where English is, by and by large, an academic subject, which functions narrowly in that culture as a tool for communicating with outsiders
English as a second language (ESL)	Classes for English learners who live in places where English has some sort of special status or public availability
English language development (ELD)	Term used in the United States to refer to ESL services.
English language teaching or training (ELT)	Term used internationally to refer to EFL services.
English learner (English-language learner, ELL)	A student who is learning English as an additional language
English-only (EO)	A term with two meanings: (1) a monolingual person in English; (2) a policy of English as the only national language of the United States
ESOL services	English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) classes designed for students who want to improve their written and spoken English skills.
Language acquisition (includes language learning)	Learning language in a natural context or formally through rules of grammar and usage
Language minority	A term used in internationally to denote language speakers who although may be a minority in their country, have, under international law, certain language rights
Language other than English (LOTE)	A term usually used to characterize the language of a student's home environment
Target language (TL)	The language that is being learned in ELD or ELT (may be American, Australian, British English, etc.)
Fluent English proficient (FEP) or fluent English speaker (FES)	English learner who is ready for redesignation (mainstreaming)
Limited English proficient (LEP), or limited English speaker (LES)	English learner who is not yet ready for redesignation

English learners also includes those studying English as a foreign language (EFL), usually as an academic subject in elementary, middle, or high schools—but also in private, proprietary institutes that cater to those who must learn English for business, scientific, or other career-related purposes. This division is not clean-cut, because English is widely used for international communication, especially with the Internet. English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) is also a widely used term; hence, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is the term for the profession. Other terms and their definitions are presented in Table 1.2.

Teaching English learners is a broad and flexible profession. ESOL educators can be found in Mandarin–English dual-language immersion kindergartens in Seattle, college classrooms in Tokyo, adult education classes in Florida, “cram” schools in Seoul, precollegiate preparation courses in Texas, middle school social studies classes in California, five-year vocational colleges in Taiwan, private schools in the United Arab Emirates, or in summer intensive programs in Uzbekistan—at a myriad of levels from preschool to postgraduate in a host of countries around the world.

Teaching with Integrity

This book takes a critical perspective on the education of English learners—one that looks at dual-language proficiency and language policy in the context of broader issues of social equity and social justice. Teachers who develop a deeper understanding of the effects of culture and language on the success—or disenfranchisement—of CLD students through school culture, curricula, and instructional methods are better prepared to promote social change. Teachers with a critical perspective look within, around, and beyond educational issues; ask probing questions about the role of educators in the struggle to attain fairness, justice, equity, and equal opportunity in the world; and work toward social equity and justice as a part of their role as language educators.

One of the major challenges for those who teach English learners is to motivate them to reach the highest possible level of school achievement. In this process, teachers work to create a classroom environment characterized by equal opportunity and a democratic process so that English learning represents a positive experience. A second challenge is to respect native languages and the rights of their speakers. Teachers who make sincere attempts to learn the languages of their students and build English on students' prior language expertise serve as intercultural and interlingual educators. Only in the context of full support for the bilingual, bicultural learner does the teaching of English respect the learner's linguistic and cultural heritage.

Critical educators are those who teach with integrity (Balderrama & Díaz-Rico, 2006). Their passion for teaching and learning fosters within their students the capacity for joyful lifelong learning, a feeling of respect for and pride in their own culture, and a sense of curiosity regarding human diversity. Colleagues can undertake together the task of achieving social justice: equal access to, and opportunity for, quality education for all students. Critical educators advocate an inclusive society in which language, literacy, and culture are integrated with respect and not compromised in any way.

Teachers are intellectual workers, knowledge professionals with cultural expertise. As such, the role of teachers is to help students attain the wisdom and skills the whole community needs to prosper. Teachers of English learners provide academic content and English-language development while upholding high professional standards within an intellectually challenging context grounded in academic knowledge that is humane and ethical, upholding intercultural relationships and promoting educational equity. Teaching with integrity includes six elements.

The Willingness to Be Fully Human

First, teachers must be willing to be human and to treat others with humanity. This is partially fulfilled when the teacher deeply believes—and communicates the belief—that teachers and students have equal civil rights in the classroom as well as parity as fellow human beings. One way of looking at the humanity of teaching is to examine the ways in which teachers and students mutually socialize one another in classroom interaction. When teachers communicate a sense of respect and share an enjoyment of shared cultural commonplaces, students are able to relax and feel more accepted and appreciated.

This does not mean teachers act as “buddies” to students, but rather as fully actualized human beings who are able to apologize when wrong, seek peer help when unsure, and grow and learn alongside students. Teachers with integrity have compassion at their core because they are conscious of others' misfortunes and distress and have an active desire to alleviate such hardships.

High Expectations for Students

A second facet of teaching with integrity is having high academic expectations for students, a deep commitment to the idea that all students can achieve academic success. Teacher expectations operate as a cycle of teacher–student mutual perceptions: Teachers and students each form ideas about the other, which they communicate in their interactions, causing both to respond in positive or negative ways.

Recognizing, addressing, and understanding these expectations and how they operate are therefore essential parts of examining the role of a teacher’s integrity with English learners. Teachers must learn to avoid prejudgments and stereotypes so that such negativity does not produce a self-fulfilling prophecy of low achievement. Even if students have internalized low expectations for themselves, teachers who strive to change students’ low academic performance can sow seeds of improved self-esteem. The strongest teachers are those who believe in students’ success more than students believe in their own failure. Teachers with flexible expectations readily revise their impressions when direct information about student achievement is available.

Being “Fully Qualified”

A third aspect of teaching with integrity is expertise in content; teachers must be fully qualified in the areas they will instruct. Two areas of content expertise related specifically to English learners that are not often required—but should be—are the following: (1) theories and pedagogy relevant to teaching English learners academic literacy; and (2) some degree of proficiency in the primary language of their students.

Given the existing linguistic diversity prevalent in U.S. classrooms, these two areas of expertise are central to the implementation of content knowledge. The widely accepted mythology in the United States that a person can be well educated and remain monolingual is questionable with regard to being “fully qualified” as an educator. The Latino population has become the largest minority in the United States, and educators who are able to augment their teaching using both second-language acquisition principles and Spanish-language skills are increasingly needed.

Maintaining Professional Ethics

Another element of teaching with integrity is ethical teaching. Upholding the morals of the profession of teaching includes believing in the worth and dignity of each human being and recognizing the supreme importance of democratic principles (National Education Association, *Code of Ethics of the Education Profession*, 1975). Ethical teachers understand the importance of professional conduct and are willing to accept a role in protecting the freedom to teach and learn; they work toward providing equal educational opportunity for all.

The NEA’s code of ethics frames the teacher’s commitment to the student. For example, teachers shall not knowingly distort subject matter relevant to the student’s progress; grant advantage or deny benefit on the grounds of race, color, creed, sex, national origin, marital status, political or religious beliefs, family, social or cultural background, or sexual orientations; or use professional relationships with students for private advantage (such as receiving money for privately tutoring after school the same students they teach during the day—which represents a conflict of interest).

Other aspects of ethical behavior address an educator’s commitment to the profession, forbidding, for example, misrepresenting one’s qualifications, disclosing information about

colleagues obtained during the course of professional service, or receiving gifts or favors that might compromise one's professional decisions. *Ethical Issues for ESL Faculty* (Hafernik, Messerschmitt, & Vandrick, 2002) touches on problematic issues that may arise when students come from countries with social norms that are quite different from those in the United States.

Being an Intercultural Educator

A teacher with integrity has an intercultural repertoire. The ability to communicate effectively with people from other cultures is the hallmark of the intercultural educator. A teacher with an intercultural perspective has a repertoire that facilitates face-to-face interactive communication, and shows sensitivity to the different ways in which individuals construct their social reality. The intercultural educator communicates compassionate involvement as a whole person, and commitment to the social context of communication. Intercultural educators recognize that they must work on themselves to progress from ethnocentric to ethnorelative views. An individual's culture provides tools to interpret reality only one way; intercultural educators must move beyond this limitation, as is discussed further in Chapter 10.

Clarity of Vision

The sixth and last facet of integrity is clarity of vision: being able to see clearly the social and political realities surrounding teaching. Teachers of English learners must consider several fundamental questions. Why do some individual students achieve, whereas others fail academically? Why is there disproportionate academic failure among certain groups of students, particularly regarding differences between majority Whites and Blacks, Latinos, English learners, or low-income students, for example? Why do European American, White, monolingual, English-speaking students, including those who come from high-income groups, succeed disproportionately? Thinking teachers interrogate those processes that affect their teaching and professional performance; in turn, they sustain political and ideological insight about the process of schooling and their role as teachers.

This political clarity is important if teachers are to act effectively and facilitate student empowerment. First and foremost, teachers can function as more conscientious professionals when they understand the larger social and political forces that affect their professional lives. With this understanding, teachers can confront these forces with the tools to change those aspects of society that undermine educational success, particularly for low-status student groups such as English learners.

As suggested in the definition of political clarity, teachers must be cognizant that they do not teach in a vacuum, but that instead their work is interconnected with broader social processes that affect their teaching. Commonly accepted belief systems justify and rationalize the existing social order. How do teachers explain the fact that multilingualism is facilitated for the privileged but not encouraged for those students who come from lower socioeconomic backgrounds? The ideology of unexamined beliefs affects teaching and schooling practices at the level of microinteractions in daily classroom life.

Social institutions such as schools play major roles in maintaining and perpetuating processes important to society. Certain groups manage to dominate others and determine how people in positions of privilege maintain those positions with the support and approval of the disempowered—a process Leistyna, Woodrum, and Sherblom (1996) define as *hegemony*, the unexamined acceptance of the social order—even when the social classes in power make decisions that disempower others.

Beliefs about language are powerful hegemonic devices, intimately connected to social position. For example, beliefs about second-language acquisition in the United States privileges French above Spanish as a preferred foreign language of study and stigmatizes nonnative speakers of English through actions of English teachers that privilege native speakers. However, at every opportunity, teachers with integrity oppose attitudes based on hegemonic ideas or folk beliefs, upholding professional practices that are substantiated by research or infused with clarity of vision about the all-too-hidden processes that perpetuate unequal power relations and inequality.

Teaching with integrity means wholeness in all that teachers do. This implies a genuine vision of social justice in the classroom. Teachers with integrity are able to sustain their humanity in the face of potentially dehumanizing forces that would reduce teaching and learning to mechanical enterprises devoid of intrinsic interest and personal investment. As suggested earlier, teaching English learners is a challenging and complex task requiring both integrity in teaching and pedagogical skills and knowledge along various dimensions of instruction. Teaching with integrity provides a model for a professional approach that is humane, student-centered, and equitable.

The Professional Preparation of Teachers to Educate English Learners

School districts seeking highly qualified teachers for ELD programs employ teachers with bilingual certification who can deliver primary-language education, in recognition of the fact that these teachers have additional preparation and expertise relevant to the position. These teachers are expected to deliver ELD instruction along with primary-language instruction for literacy as well as content. In states where structured English immersion (content delivery in English without support for primary-language literacy) is the specified model for English learners, teachers use specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE) strategies in addition to ELD.

The availability of employment for ELD teachers in the United States depends on local population demographics, the role of ELD teaching in relation to bilingual education, and the local need for teachers qualified for ELD. One fact, however, remains a constant: the current shortage of teachers in U.S. classrooms. The United States was expected to be short 112,000 teachers in 2018, especially in such key areas as special education, science, foreign language, and ESOL (Ostroff, 2017). The teacher shortage is particularly acute in urban areas, where 40 to 50 percent of English learners are found. Almost 8 percent of new teachers leave the profession every year, and the rate is even higher in low-income communities. Districts are setting aside funds for training new teachers, raising starting salaries, and recruiting teachers for bilingual education. The employability outlook has never been better for teachers who specialize in teaching English learners.

Career Preparation for Teachers

To prepare for teaching English learners, an individual can pursue various levels of precareer training, from BA programs with a special emphasis, to post-BA teacher credential programs, to MA programs that include teacher certification. TESOL's website (www.tesol.org) has a link that may help to clarify these terms and the important differences that distinguish preparation programs and levels of career training. Regardless of the widely varying career ladders available to educators, the demand for English-language teaching professionals has steadily grown, not

TABLE 1.3 Teacher Preparation for ESOL in Various States with High English-Learners Populations

State	Preparation Required for Teaching English Learners
California	Minimum of bachelor's degree; must pass Basic Skills Requirement. The Multiple and Single Subject Preliminary Teacher Preparation Programs include content for teaching English learners that authorizes the credential holder to provide instruction for English language development and specially designed academic instruction in English within the subject area and grade level authorization of the Multiple Subject and Single Subject Teaching Credential. Other credential requirements apply. Those seeking out-of-state reciprocal credential must earn authorization to teach English learners by one of the following methods: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Obtain an English learner authorization issued by the Commission authorizing service in English Language Development (ELD) and Specially Designed Academic Instruction delivered in English (SDAIE). Submit a copy of an out-of-state credential verifying a full English learner authorization.
Texas	Minimum of bachelor's degree; completion of a university-approved teacher credential program plus completion of approved credential areas ESL Generalist (grade level 4–8); ESL Generalist (GL EC-6); ESL Supplemental; bilingual generalist in three languages at various teaching levels. Candidates applying from out of the United States must submit proof of oral English language proficiency if the degree was earned outside the United States, including territories of the United States.
Florida	Minimum of bachelor's degree; graduates of Florida state-approved teacher preparation programs who have passed all three portions of the Florida Teacher Certification Examination (FTCE), will qualify for a Professional Florida Educator's Certificate; add Academic Endorsement in ESOL.
Illinois	English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers may work with students in grades K–12. The advanced credential issued through the Illinois State Board of Education Division of Educator Licensure for ESL teachers in the state is called the ENL, or English as a New Language endorsement (online at www.eslteacheredu.org/illinois/)
New York	Complete a degree and teacher preparation program in New York. The New York State Education Department (NYSED) offers different pathways leading to TESOL certification, some of which apply to first-time applicants, while others apply to those who already hold a teaching certificate in New York or another state (online at www.eslteacheredu.org/new-york/)
Washington	A bachelor's degree at minimum in TESOL from an approved teacher preparation program. The Professional Educator Standards Board (PESB) has approved a total of 21 schools with the requisite teacher preparation programs (online at www.eslteacheredu.org/washington/)

only in the United States but also throughout the world. Because each state has the authority to set its own certification requirements, professional qualifications for teachers of English learners can vary. Table 1.3 compares the career preparation paths in various states with large demand for teachers of English learners.

The field of teaching English learners is equally open to native-English speakers and non-native speakers alike. A speaker of another language who has learned English and has achieved some measure of bilingual competence is uniquely qualified to understand the needs of English learners (see Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999). Those interested in more information on the topic of Nonnative English Speaking Teachers (NNEST) can use this a search engine to locate the TESOL International Association and then enter “NNEST” in TESOL’s internal search box.

The Internet can help to provide a broad picture of the possibilities available to those who specialize in teaching English learners. A site hosted by the Center for Multilingual Multicultural Research at the University of Southern California contains links to scholarships and teacher training programs for bilingual paraeducators. Using a search engine to find “ESLteacherEDU” brings up a website that hosts a Career Center for ESL Teachers that includes notices of available teacher preparation stipends and grants.

Professional Organizations for Teachers

Teachers of English learners can choose as their major professional affiliation such organizations as the National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE; www.nabe.org), TESOL International Association (www.tesol.org), National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE; www.ncte.org), the International Literacy Association (ILA; www.ila.org), or state, regional, or local affiliates of these organizations. These groups increasingly include a focus on English learners in their publications and conference sessions. However, NABE and TESOL are the only U.S.-based professional organizations with the teaching of English learners as their central mission.

Information about Teaching English Learners

NCELA's website offers under "Resources" a database of more than 20,000 research articles, reports, curricula multimedia products, and other information pertaining to English learners. Resources for many other languages are equally available. For example, NCELA has archived Palomares's 1991 *The Tagalog-Speaking Child: A Teacher's Resource*, still an invaluable guide to this Filipino population. NCELA's Resources repository is an excellent source for information on minority languages that an ESOL teacher may encounter. The Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (CREDE) at the University of California, Santa Cruz, offers a range of resources for teachers of English learners, including research articles, free journal articles, teaching guides, and online games for English learners.

Education Week Teacher offers a webpage entitled, "A Quick-Start Guide for Teaching English-Language Learners" (Pillars, 2017) that features advice on preparing for English learners in the classroom. For ELD teaching, Dave's ESL Cafe (www.eslcafe.com) is a popular site for English learning, featuring chatrooms, an online bookstore, job listings, and sections on slang,

It is not necessary to be a native-English speaker to teach English learners.



idioms, and other language-teaching tips. The site also includes thousands of links to other topics (flash cards, multicultural issues, lesson plans, online help, newsgroups, and tongue twisters, to name a few categories).



Those who teach English learners work within a variety of cultural, linguistic, and socioeconomic contexts. They honor the diversity in culture, language, social class, and talents that makes their students unique. The intellectual and pedagogical challenges of teaching in a language-acquisition classroom offer rich opportunities for personal and professional growth. Those who offer cultural understanding receive it; those who offer language exchange expand their language skills; those who offer empathy grow as human beings. No other teaching profession provides such possibilities for intercultural communication, literacy development, creative instruction, and reflective social praxis. Using this text, prospective teachers of English learners can prepare for a successful career and current teachers can update their expertise in teaching English learners.

This page intentionally left blank



Language Structure and Use

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter, you should be able to . . .

- Explain how language contributes to human life;
- List the universal features of language;
- Identify key aspects of phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics;
- Give examples of language functions and features of academic discourse;
- Describe how pragmatics influences verbal language; and
- Survey the ways that dialects and language variation affect English learners.

Human Language

Verbal language is highly developed in human beings. It allows us to express our deepest feelings, our broadest concepts, and our highest ideals. It takes us beyond the here and now, and even beyond the possible—by means of language, we might join the attackers at the siege of Troy or journey through the looking glass with Alice. Language can connect humans as children listen to stories before the fire-place on a cold winter night; or it can, together with culture, divide two peoples into bitter sectarian warfare. Language communicates the heights of joy and the depths of despair. As teachers, we share the responsibility with parents and other caregivers to increase the language skills of our students. There can be no effort more noble or worthwhile.

Linguistics Helps Teachers to Understand English Learners

Understanding language structure and use provides teachers with essential tools to help students learn. All languages share universal features, such as the ability to label objects and to describe actions and events. All languages are divided into various subsystems (phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics). What is most amazing is that language users learn all these subsystems of their first language without realizing it—native speakers are not necessarily able to explain a sound pattern, a grammatical point, or the use of idiomatic expression. To them, that is “just the way it is.” Language, then, is a system that works even without conscious awareness, an inborn competence that unfolds and matures when given adequate stimulation from others. Education about language can help students to sharpen their linguistic knowledge about their first language as they acquire skills in their second language(s).

This chapter explores the various aspects of language and provides suggestions to help English-language development (ELD) teachers identify student needs and provide appropriate instruction. Knowledge about language structure and use also helps teachers recognize the richness and variety of students’ skills in both first and second languages. Linguistic knowledge—not only about English but also about the possibilities inherent in other languages—helps teachers view the language world of the English learner with insight and empathy.

Language Creates Both Equality and Inequality

Language equalizes—most preschoolers (those without language difficulties) as well as professors are native speakers of their first language. By the age of five, most children have learned how to make well-formed sentences in their native language and, although they do not have as extensive a vocabulary as they will later in life, can be considered native speakers. Although some students may be shy or their language skills delayed in development, it is incorrect to say that a young child “doesn’t have language.” Every healthy child—regardless of racial, geographical, social, or economic heritage—is capable of learning any language to which he or she is exposed.

Alternatively, language may reflect inequality—dialect distinctions often demarcate social class. One group of speakers of a language may look down upon others whose dialect differs, and speakers of a dominant language may discriminate against those who speak a minority language. One goal for teachers is sustain equality of language: to respect the language that students bring to class, and to regard students as language experts, full participants in the linguistic world that surrounds them. Whether this participation takes place in the primary or secondary language, each human has access to the linguistic resources that create and sustain culture and give meaning to life. The role of the teacher is to develop these resources.

Language Universals

At last count, 7,099 languages are spoken in today’s world (SIL International, 2017). If that seems to be an increase over the figure 6,912 of the year 2000, it may be because the definition of what constitutes a distinct language may have changed. Although not all of these have been intensely studied, linguists have carried out enough investigations over the centuries to posit some universal facts about language.

All Languages Have Structure

All human languages use a finite set of sounds (or gestures) that are combined to form meaningful elements or words, which themselves form an infinite set of possible sentences. Every spoken language also divides these discrete sound segments—phonemes—such as /t/, /m/, or /e/ into a class of vowels and a class of consonants.

All grammars contain rules for the formation of words, and sentences of definite types, kind, and similar grammatical categories (for example, nouns and verbs) are found in all languages. Every language has a way of referring to past time; the ability to negate; and ways to form questions, issue commands, and so on.

Although human languages are specific to their places of use and origin (for example, languages of seafaring cultures have more specific words for oceanic phenomena than do languages of desert tribes), semantic universals, such as “male” or “female,” are found in every language in the world. No matter how exotic a language may appear to a native-English speaker, all human languages in fact share the same features, most of which are lacking in the language of apes, dolphins, or birds.

Language Is Dynamic

Languages change over time. Pronunciation (phonology) changes—across 400 years, for example, Shakespeare’s plays often feature scene-ending couplets whose words may have rhymed in his day but do not in the modern day. We recognize that pronunciation in English has altered over time, because the spelling of some words is archaic: We no longer pronounce the /k/ in *knight* or the /w/ in *write*. Semantics change over time, and words disappear, such as the archaic English words *bilbo*, *costermonger*, and *fluey*. Words expand their meanings, as with *geek* and *mouse*. New words appear, such as *nannycam* and *freeware*. Some languages change more than others: Written Icelandic has changed relatively little since the thirteenth century, whereas writers for *Wired*, a New York–based technology magazine, coin an average of twenty-five new words in English with each month’s edition (examples: *robopocalypse*, *Russianly*, *Googleable*, *upside-downier*, *infoporn*).

Teachers who respect the dynamic nature of language can take delight in learners’ approximations of English. When Chinese speakers fail to produce past-tense markers (*Yesterday I download a file) (asterisks in this chapter indicate sentences that are ungrammatical or have incorrect words), they may be speaking the English of the future, when the past-tense morpheme (-d, -ed, -t) may have been dropped, just as the second-person inflection (-est, as in “thou goest”) has disappeared. In spoken English, “whom” is gradually disappearing, and “less” is gradually taking the place of “fewer” when speaking of countable nouns (as in “less opportunities”). In the Los Angeles regional dialect, many people use a variant form of the past participle for certain verbs, which in the past would have been frowned upon: **“shouldn’t have went”* and **“should have came.”* These changes demonstrate the ways that languages change over time.

Language Is Complex

Without question, using language is one of the most complex of human activities, providing the human race with a psychological tool unmatched in power and flexibility. It is normal for humans no matter their native language to be able to communicate a wide range of concepts, both concrete and abstract. All languages are equally complex, capable of expressing a wide range of ideas and expandable to include new words for new concepts. Motu, one of 715 indigenous languages

in Papua New Guinea, has a complex vocabulary for indigenous plants, whereas Icelandic has an elaborate system of kinship names that allows people to trace their ancestry for hundreds of years. Not only is vocabulary rich and detailed, but syntax, phonology, and pragmatics are also complex features of the many languages across the globe.

Language is arbitrary, meaning that we cannot guess the meaning of a word from its sound (except for a few words such as *buzz*). There is no inherent reason to link the sound and meaning of a word. Because the meaning–symbol connection is arbitrary, language gains an abstracting power removed from direct ties to the here and now of objects or events. Moreover, language is open-ended—an infinite set of sentences can be produced in any language.

Even though language is complicated, almost all aspects of a person's life are touched by language. Although language is universal, each language has evolved to meet the experiences, needs, and desires of a particular community.

DID YOU KNOW?

THE KOREAN LANGUAGE

Korean is the only language to have a true alphabet completely native to East Asia, with each character corresponding to a phoneme (ten vowels, nineteen consonants, and vowel-like consonants called *glides*). Korean has no articles, word gender, or declensions. There are no adjectives; instead, verbs can be used as adjectives. There are also extensive variations of verb forms used to indicate tenses and honorifics.

Source: Adapted from Herrera, Pérez, & Escamilla, 2010, pp. 94–95.

The Building Blocks of Language

Phonology: Phonemes, Phonemic Sequences, and Phonemic Awareness

Phonology is the study of the sound patterns of language. *Phonetics* concerns the production of speech sounds by humans of the production, reception, analysis, transcription, and classification of speech sounds, and also, “the relation of speech sounds to the total language process” (Heilman, 2002, p. 4).

DID YOU KNOW?

IS IT ENGLISH?

These activities illustrate the characteristics of the English sound system:

- Which of the following are possible English words and which would be impossible because they do not fit the English sound system? *stgmonic*, *chetelogo*, *ndeale*, *tassitic*

(Answer: not *stgmonic* and *ndeale*—they contain non-English-like consonant clusters)

- Products are often brought to the market with names that use phonemic enhancement: The gasoline company and product Esso was renamed Exxon in 1973 in part because test marketing showed that people responded more strongly to the look and sound of the double X than the double S.

Phonemes The individual sounds in a language, the distinctive units that “make a difference” when sounds distinguish words, are phonemes. For example, in English the initial consonant sounds /p/ and /b/ are the only difference between the words *park* and *bark* and thus are phonemes. The number of phonemes in a language ranges between twenty and fifty; English has a high average count, from thirty-four to forty-five, depending on the dialect. Hawai’ian, in contrast, has one of the lowest phoneme counts, with eight consonants and ten vowels. Table 2.1 lists the phonemes in English (using the International Phonetic Alphabet) with example words.

If phonemic variations do not distinguish words, they are considered variations of one phoneme rather than completely different phonemes. For example, in English—at least in the Pittsburgh dialect—the name “Lynne” is pronounced with the tongue to the back of the roof

TABLE 2.1 Phonemes in English: Vowels and Consonants

Vowels	Examples	Consonants	Examples
/ʌ/	wake, pain, tray	/b/	bet, habit, rub
/a/	pat	/k/	cake, naked, lack
/ɛ/	be, beat, flee	/d/	do, sadder, wed
/e/	set	/f/	far, offer, half, phony
/ɪ/	I, tie, by	/g/	gone, digger, beg
/i/	if, tin	/h/	head, behold
/o/	no, moat, stone	/j/	jam, tragic, stage, ledge
/ɒ/	pot	/l/	light, willow, well
/ʊ/	futile, Tuesday	/m/	mine, dim
/u/	cup, dumb	/n/	none, fun, Lynne
/oo/	to, rue, chew, boot	/p/	push, topple, step
/oo/	soot, put	/kw/	quiet
/oi/	toil, boy	/r/	rope, Larry, bar
/ou/	pout, how, mouse	/s/	sip, hustle, miss
/aw/	saw, call, caught	/t/	tip, after, bat
/ar/	far	/v/	vet, hover, gave
		/w/	wag, away
		/ks/ or /gz/	sox, exit
		/y/	your, yet
		/z/	zip, noisy, buzz
		/sh/	shout, lotion, wash
		/hw/	what
		/ch/	chop, pitch
		/th/	thing, southside, north
		/th/ or ð	that, mother, soothe
		/ng/	wing, running
		/zh/	genre, collision, pleasure

of the mouth, whereas when pronouncing the name “Linda” the tongue is tipped farther forward. However, both are acceptable versions of the /l/ phoneme because this difference alone does not distinguish two word meanings, as does the difference between *pan* and *ban*.

English learners’ aural comprehension and pronunciation may be affected when English words contain phonemes that are unfamiliar to them. The schwa (the sound of the “e” in the phrase “the hat”) is often difficult for Spanish speakers because Spanish vowels rarely alter their sound quality in unaccented syllables. A digraph—a pair of letters used to write one sound or a combination of sounds that does not correspond to the written letters combined—may confuse the English learner who attempts to separate the digraph into two separate phonemes. The concept of diphthong (defined as a vowel blend with two adjacent vowels, each of which is sounded) may transfer in principle from another language, although the diphthongs may differ from language to language. Mandarin has diphthongs (*shyueh*), as does Spanish (*hay*).

DID YOU KNOW?

ENGLISH PHONEMES NOT FOUND IN OTHER LANGUAGES

Some phonemes in English do not exist in certain other languages. English learners from these backgrounds might experience difficulty in hearing and producing these sounds.

Not in Japanese: /dg/ /f/ /i/ /th/ /oo/ /v/ /schwa/

Not in Spanish: /dg/ /j/ /sh/ /th/ /z/

Phonemic Sequences Each language features permissible ways in which phonemes can be combined in a language (for example, English has many words with three-consonant clusters such as /str/ and /scr/, whereas Mandarin does not). Languages also have permissible places for these sequences: initial (at the beginning of a word), medial (between initial and final position), and final (at the end of a word), or in a combination of these positions. In English, /spr/ as in *spring*, /nd/ as in *handle*, and /kt/ as in *talked* are permissible phonemic sequences, but neither /nd/ nor /kt/ can be used initially (**ndaft* is not permissible). English allows /sp/ in all three positions—*speak*, *respect*, *grasp*—but restricts /pt/ to only one—*apt* (the word *optic* splits the phonemes into two syllables; the word *pterodactyl* has a silent *p*).

Phonemes can be described in terms of their characteristic point of articulation (tip, front, or back of the tongue), the manner of articulation (the way the airstream is obstructed), and whether the vocal cords vibrate or not (voiced versus voiceless sounds). Not all languages distinguish between voiced and voiceless sounds. Arabic speakers may say “barking lot” instead of “parking lot” because to them /p/ and /b/ are not distinguishable.

Phonemic Awareness As children learn language, they acquire phonological awareness in the process of separating the oral sound stream they encounter into syllables and words. Literacy development builds on this ability, helping young readers connect sounds to written symbols. *Phonemic awareness* is the ability to use the sound–symbol connection to separate sentences into words and words into syllables in order to hear, identify, and manipulate the individual phonemes within spoken words. This is not an easy task, with ten to twenty phonemes articulated per second in normal speech. Phonemic awareness tasks help students hear and isolate individual phonemes. This is the basis of phonics instruction (see Chapter 7).

Phonology: Stress, Pitch, Rhythm, and Intonation

Stress Besides phonemes, characteristics of language sounds include stress, pitch/tone, and intonation. Stress, the amount of volume a speaker gives to a particular sound, operates at two levels: word and sentence. Stress is a property of syllables—stressed syllables are longer and louder than unstressed syllables. Within words, specific syllables are stressed. In some languages, stress is predictable; in Czech, stress is usually on the first syllable of a word; in French, on the last syllable of a phrase. Stress is difficult to learn in English because there are “no consistent rules” (Dale & Poms, 2005, p. 84). Incorrect stress can alter the meanings of words. In the following examples, the stressed syllable is indicated by the accent mark ‘:

<i>désert</i>	noun, “dry region”
<i>dessért</i>	noun, “sweet foods after the main meal”
<i>ínvalid</i>	noun, as in “person with long-term, debilitating illness”
<i>inválid</i>	adjective, as in “null, void” (Dale & Poms, 2005, p. 84)

Stress can further be used at the sentence level to vary emphasis. For example, the following sentences all carry different emphases, and thus different words are stressed:

Kimberly walked home. (It was Kimberly who walked home.)

Kimberly *walked* home. (She walked; she did not ride.)

She walked *home*. (She walked home, not to Grandma’s house.)

In some cases, the wrong stress on a word completely undermines comprehension.

Students who learn a second language sometimes have difficulty altering the sounds of words in the context of whole sentences. Thus, teachers are better served by teaching words in context rather than in lists.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

A Misplaced Word Stress

Rashid sat down, shoulders slumped. “I’m beginning to get discouraged. People don’t understand my speaking.”

“Give me an example,” I suggested.

Rashid continued, “At lunch my friend was eating something mashed. I said ‘That looks like potty toe.’ She gave me a strange look.”

“Potty toe?” I asked. “What in the world do you mean? You’d better write down the word.” (He wrote the word.)

“Oh!” I exclaimed, looking at the paper. “Potato!”

Pitch and Prosody Other sound qualities are important in oral speech. *Pitch* at the word or sentence level is a phonological component of language that plays a key role in determining meaning. “Eva is going,” as a statement, is said with a rise on the syllable “go,” followed by “-ing” with a falling pitch; but said as a question, the pitch rises at the end. *Tone languages* use the pitch of individual syllables to contrast meanings (examples are Thai, Mandarin, Vietnamese, Zulu, Apache, Navajo, and Kiowa).

Pitch interacts with word stress to produce *prosody*, the underlying rhythm of the language. The way an individual word fits into a sentence may change the stress. For example, in the sentence “He’s my uncle—Uncle Bob,” the first use of “uncle” is heavily stressed on the first syllable because the syllable is placed in the first clause at the climax of the prosodic contour, just before the final pitch drop. During the second “uncle,” neither syllable is stressed, because the name “Bob” carries the emphasis, hence the stress.

Because English words are pronounced with different stress depending on their locations in sentences, in contrast to Spanish, in which the vowels are more apt to maintain their sound values irrespective of placement, Spanish speakers may have difficulty achieving the prosody of the native speaker of English.

Typical problems in English prosody include the tendency to pronounce all words with equal emphasis, avoiding contractions (thus sounding stilted), and pausing incorrectly between words. To achieve proper prosody, words in phrases are blended together and functional words are reduced in emphasis (“How are you” sounds like “Howaru?”), and sounds are linked across words, so that “We’ve eaten” sounds like “We veaten.” Smooth prosody is a combination of phrasing and pausing: “Please//do your chores//before you go out.”

Intonation Patterns The use of pitch to modify sentence meaning is called *intonation*. Each language has a distinctive sound flow across the sentence. The English pattern is characterized by accented and unaccented syllables, the same patterns found in English poetry. The *iamb* is a beat with one unaccented syllable followed by an accented one, as in the phrase “too late to go.” An *anapest* is a beat with two unaccented syllables followed by an accented one: “in the heat of the night.” Most sentences in English combine accented and unaccented syllables in an undulating rhythm until just before the end of the sentence, at which time the pitch rises and then drops briefly.

In contrast, Cantonese, as a tonal language, has intonation variation that distinguishes words by tone, but an entire sentence does not have a rise-and-fall curve. Because English, for example, makes use of a questioning intonation to soften the demanding nature of a request (“Could you sit down over there?”), a Cantonese speaker may sound brusque to English ears (“Could! You! Go! Sit! Down! Over! There!”). Intonation matters a great deal when language fulfills social functions.

Contrastive analysis—paying careful attention to phonemic differences between languages and then spending more time teaching those phonemes that differ—has been found to be relatively nonproductive as a teaching methodology. There is little evidence that learners will find general phonemic differences between languages to be difficult. *Error analysis*, however, can guide teachers; making careful note of a learner’s difficulties can provide evidence about the need for specific interventions. Empirical teaching—teaching guided by data—helps to focus phonological training directly on the learner’s difficulties. Guidelines for teaching pronunciation are featured in Chapter 6.

Morphology: The Words of Language

Morphology is the study of the meaning units in a language. In some cases in English, individual words constitute these basic meaning units (e.g., *chase*). However, many words can be broken down into smaller segments—morphemes—that still retain meaning.

Morphemes The basic building blocks of meaning are *morphemes*, small units that cannot be further subdivided. *Fundamentalists* is an English word composed of five

morphemes: *funda + ment + al + ist + s* (root + noun-forming suffix + adjective-forming suffix + noun-forming suffix + plural marker). Morphemes can be represented by a single sound, such as /a/ (a stand-alone, or free morpheme meaning an indefinite article as in a *girl*) or /a-/ (a bound morpheme meaning “without,” as in *amoral* or *asexual*). Morphemes can be a single syllable, such as the noun-forming suffix *-ment* in *amendment*, or two or more syllables, such as in *lion* or *parsley*. As we have seen, morphemes may have the same sound with two different meanings, such as the *-er* in *dancer* (“one who dances”) and the *-er* in *fancier* (the comparative form of *fancy*). A morpheme may also have alternate phonetic forms: The regular plural *-s* can be pronounced either /z/ (*bags*), /s/ (*cats*), or /ɪz/ (*bushes*).

Morphemes are of different types and serve different purposes. Free morphemes can stand alone (*envelope*, *the*, *through*), whereas bound morphemes occur only in conjunction with others (*-ing*, *dis-*, *-ceive*), either as *affixes* or as *bound roots*. Affixes at the beginnings of words are *prefixes* (*un-* in the word *unafraid*); those added at the ends are *suffixes* (*-able* in the word *believable*); and *infixes* are morphemes inserted between other morphemes (*-s-* in *mothers-in-law*).

Part of the power and flexibility of English is the ease with which longer English words are formed by adding prefixes and suffixes to root words (*cycle*, *cyclist*; *fix*, *fixation*). The predictability of meaning carried by standard affixes can make it easier for students to learn to infer words from context rather than relying on rote memorization.

BEST PRACTICE Morphemes

To generate interest in science concepts, at the beginning of each general science unit Mrs. Silvestri selected several roots from a general list (*astro*, *bio*, *geo*, *hydr*, *luna*, *photo*, *phys*, *terr*). She then asked students to work in pairs to search their texts for words with those roots from the relevant chapter in the science text. Next she handed out a list of prefixes and affixes and asked each pair to generate five to ten English words that are new to them, including definitions. Students wrote each new word and its definition on two index cards and played a memory matching game with their card decks.

Word-Formation Processes English has historically been a language that has grown in vocabulary either by borrowing extensively from other languages or by coining new words from extant terms. Studying how new words are formed—largely from existing morphemes—helps English learners understand morphemes.

Clipping is a process of shortening words, such as *prof* for *professor* or the slangy *teach* for *teacher*. If students learn both the original and the clipped versions, they gain the sense that they are mastering both colloquial and academic speech.

In English, *acronyms* are plentiful, and many are already familiar to students—USA, CNN, and NASA, for example. A list of acronyms helps students increase their vocabulary of both the words forming the acronyms and the acronyms themselves. Who can resist knowing that *laser* is light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation?

Words formed from parts of two words are called *blends*—for example, *chortle* from *chuckle* + *snort* and *travelogue* from *travel* + *monologue*. Students can become word detectives and discover new blends (*Spanglish*, *jazzercise*, *rockumentary*) or create their own blends (a hot dog in a hamburger bun can be a *hotburger*).

Using Morphemes in Teaching

Students can add to their enjoyment of learning English by finding new words and creating their own. Those who play video games can make up new names for characters using morphemes that evoke pieces of meaning. Advertising copywriters and magazine writers do this on a daily basis; the word *blog* is a combination of the free morphemes *web* and *log*; then came *vlog* (*video* /v/ from “video” added to *log*). The prefixes *e-* and *i-* have combined to form many new words and concepts over recent decades (e.g., *e-pets* and *iTunes*). The study of morphology is fun and increases word power.

TABLE 2.2 Words with Morpheme *en-* as Prefix

enjoy	enact	enliven
enlarge	enclose	ensure
enrich	encourage	entrust
entrap	entangle	enroll
enable	encrust	enforce

TABLE 2.3 Words with Morpheme *-ion* as Suffix

transportation	division	translation
action	succession	comparison
examination	combination	validation
preparation	signification	respiration
certification	termination	separation

Depending on the student’s first language, some morphemes are easier to acquire than others. For example, the prefix *en-*, meaning “to bring about, to make, or to put into,” is more often used to make verbs from nouns or adjectives that derive from the Anglo-Saxon side of English—that is, words not directly related to cognates in Romance languages. For example, one can say “enjoy” but not “*enmuse.” In contrast, words ending in the noun suffix *-ion* are relatively easy for Spanish speakers because they are usually words that have cognates in Spanish. Therefore, students may not as easily acquire the words in Table 2.2 as they might those in Table 2.3.

Attention to morphemes in the classroom can accelerate language acquisition if students are exposed to families of words across parts of speech—that is, if *courage* is taught alongside *courageous*, *discourage*, and *encourage* or *ice* is taught with *icy*, *ice cream*, *icicle*, *ice age*, and *iceberg*. Instead of defining new words, students may enjoy separating new words into morphemes and finding other words that match these morphemes. This activity is consonant with a key principle of brain-based learning (Chapter 3): The brain learns faster when engaged in pattern-matching or pattern-finding activities.

BEST PRACTICE Working with Morphemes

The teacher can encourage awareness of comparatives and superlatives using the following game, called Speed Search.

Students circulate around the room to see how many people they can find who fit the description on the slip of paper they have drawn from a box. After two minutes, they draw another slip for a second round of play. Students win if they have the most points after a designated number of rounds. Sample descriptions: Find a person who believes that dogs are less intelligent than cats. Find a person who has more than two brothers. Find a person who is the oldest child in the family. (Kealey & Inness, 1997, pp. 24–25)

Syntax: The Sentence Patterns of Language

Syntax refers to the rules that govern the formation of phrases and sentences. The words in a language have semantic properties that entail their use in sentences in some ways and not in others. A well-formed sentence is more than the sum of the meanings of the words; in English the position of the word in a sentence is an important part of the overall meaning. Sentence A,

“The teacher asked the students to sit down,” has the same words as sentence B, “The students asked the teacher to sit down,” but not the same meaning. Not every sequence of words is a sentence: Sentence C, “*Asked the the teacher to down students sit,” violates syntactic rules in English and thus has no meaning.

Native speakers of a language have syntactic proficiency—they can distinguish syntactically correct from incorrect combinations of words, even though they may not be able to explain what syntactic rules have been violated. Even very young English-speaking children know that sentences A and B are meaningful but sentence C is not. Moreover, the mind is a strong organizing force, constantly striving to gain meaning, so speakers of a language can comprehend even imperfectly formed sentences.

Whereas syntax refers to the internally constructed rules that make sentences, grammar looks at whether a sentence conforms to some standard. An important distinction, therefore, is the one between standard and colloquial use. Many colloquial usages feature acceptable sentence patterns in English, even though their usage is not standard—for example, “I ain’t got a pen” is acceptable English syntax but not standard usage. Teachers who are promoting the standard dialect need to be aware that students’ developing competence will not always conform to that standard.

Besides grammaticality and word order, speakers’ syntactic knowledge helps them understand three other sentence features. Double meaning, or *ambiguity*, occurs in sentences such as “She is a Korean karate expert” or the frequently seen “Please wait for the hostess to be seated.” On the other hand, sentences can have different structures but mean the same thing: “He is hard to please.” “Pleasing him is hard.” and “It is hard to please him.” Finally, speakers can understand and produce novel utterances, the creative aspect of language.

Explicit Teaching of Syntax

In the late twentieth century, it was widely believed that students could acquire a second language without explicit teaching of syntactic structures. However, because the mind seeks to acquire patterns, and syntax is a pattern, it is now thought that creative and systematic teaching of syntax can accelerate language learning. Grammar books that teach students to label the parts of speech and build up sentence structures from simple to complex are useful. Balancing this systematic instruction with grammar games and creative language engagement such as poetry—or even Mad Libs, the game that has students blindly providing nouns, adjectives, and verbs without knowing the story plot—helps students to learn the parts of speech.

Teachers often use a hanging card “pocket chart” holder to teach sentence syntax. Students can work in pairs to assemble meaningful sentences using packs of sentence components. Words in the same sentence should be on the same color of index card so that multiple sentences can be kept separated as students work. A trick to checking students’ work quickly is for each set of cards to spell out a word on the back of the cards if the cards are in the correct order.

Some students have more *metalinguistic knowledge* than others—that is, they have the vocabulary to talk about grammar because they learned the grammar of their native language. As with other kinds of learning, the wise teacher assesses students’ prior knowledge to learn where to begin instruction.

Describing the characteristic differences between languages—contrastive analysis—is useful to some degree in predicting what kinds of syntax errors students make (see Box 2.1 for Mandarin and Box 2.2 for Spanish). However, direct instruction must also be balanced with rich, authentic exposure to English sentences, both spoken and written, and the learner must be allowed time for syntactic structures to be absorbed, consolidated, and deployed in many situations before a given structure can be said to be a stable feature of the learner’s repertoire.

BOX 2.1 English Syntax Contrasted with Chinese (Mandarin)

English learners with Chinese as a mother tongue may need additional teacher assistance with the following aspects of English:

- Verb tense: **Yesterday I see him*. In Chinese, the verb form is not changed to mark the time during which the action occurred—the adverb, not the verb, signals the time. Conjugating the verb form in English may prove to be difficult for the learner.
- Subject–verb agreement: **He see me*. In Chinese, verbs do not change form to create subject–verb agreement.
- Word order: **I at home ate*. In Chinese, prepositional phrases usually come before the verb—the rules governing adverb placement in English are difficult for many learners.
- Plurals: **They give me 3 dollar*. In Chinese, like English, the marker indicates number, but the noun form does not change to indicate plural; in English the noun form changes.
- Articles: **No one knows correct time*. Chinese uses demonstrative pronouns [*this one, that one*] but not definite or indefinite articles [*a, the*]. The rules for such use in English are complex.

Semantics: The Meanings of Language

Semantics is the study of the meanings of individual words and of larger units such as phrases and sentences. Speakers of a language learn the “agreed-on” meanings of words and phrases in their language; these meanings must be shared, or communication becomes impossible. However, English is a flexible language that is responsive to the needs of a dynamic culture, and new concepts emerge daily that require new words; English learners must acquire vocabulary continuously to keep up with semantic demands.

Some words carry a high degree of stability and conformity in the ways they are used (*slap* as a verb, for example, must involve the hand or some other flat object—“He slapped me with

BOX 2.2 English Syntax Contrasted with Spanish

English learners with Spanish as a mother tongue may need additional teacher assistance with the following aspects of English:

- Verb conjugation: Spanish has three groups of regular verbs, in contrast to one group in English (those that add *-ed* or *-d*), but English has more classes of irregular verbs (wildly irregular *go/went/gone* versus mildly irregular like *send/sent, break/broke*, etc.).
- Subject–verb agreement: In Spanish, first-, second-, and third-person forms must be changed from the base form to create subject–verb agreement. It is sometimes hard to remember that in English only the third-person form is changed.
- Noun/adjective order: In Spanish, adjectives come sometimes before and sometimes after the noun (*un buen día, un día linda*). These alterations, however, obey regular rules.
- Articles: Spanish, like English, uses both definite and indefinite articles, but with different rules (for example, languages need the definite article, *el inglés*). Both definite and indefinite articles must match the noun to which they refer (*unos muchachos, las mujeres*).

Source: Spinelli (1994).

TABLE 2.4 Examples of English–Spanish Cognates

(Same meaning, same spelling; may be pronounced differently)

club	plural
director	radio
hotel	rural
hospital	salmon (Spanish salmón)
mineral	sofa (Spanish sofá)
postal	tenor
perfume	violin (Spanish violín)

his ball” is not semantically meaningful). Other words carry multiple meanings (e.g., *scrap*), ambiguous meanings (*bank*, as in “They’re at the bank”), or debatable meanings (*marriage*, for example, for many people can refer only to heterosexual alliances, whereas others might apply it to nonheterosexual contexts).

Semantic Challenges in English

In second-language acquisition, there are three basic semantic challenges. First is the process of translating—finding words (lexical items) in the second language that correspond to those already known in the first.

The second challenge is learning words for ideas and concepts that are new in the second language for which there is no first-language counterpart (for example, the Polish term *fiúcha*—“to use company time and resources to one’s private ends”—has no equivalent in English) (de Boinod, 2006). The third challenge involves similar words that are in both languages whose meanings differ in small or large ways. Table 2.4 lists words that are cognates in English and Spanish—their meaning is identical. Table 2.5 lists near cognates, and Table 2.6 lists false cognates—those in which the similar appearance is misleading.

Another challenge in English is the extraordinary wealth of synonyms. One estimate of English vocabulary places the number at more than 3 million words; the *Oxford English Dictionary* contains about 290,000 entries with some 616,500 word forms (Oxford English Living Dictionaries, 2017). Fortunately, only about 200,000 words are in common use, and an educated person draws from a stock of about 20,000 to use about 2,000 in a week (SIL International, 2017). The challenge when learning this vast vocabulary is to distinguish denotations, connotations, and other shades of meaning.

TABLE 2.5 Examples of English–Spanish Near Cognates

(Same meaning, slightly different spelling; may be pronounced differently)

English	Spanish	English	Spanish
February	febrero	tranquil	tranquilo
March	marzo	salt	sal
April	abril	violet	violeta
May	mayo	second	segundo
June	junio	intelligent	inteligente
July	julio	problem	problema
August	agosto	cream	crema
button	botón	check (bank)	cheque
much	mucho	deodorant	desodorante
office	oficina	garden	jardin
courtesy	cortesía	map	mapa
lamp	lámpara	paper	papel
medal	medalla	use	uso

TABLE 2.6 Examples of English–Spanish False Cognates

(Close in sound; slightly different spelling; different meaning)

Spanish	Meaning in Spanish	English False Cognate	Meaning in English
blando	soft	bland	soothing; not stimulating or irritating
blanco	white	blank	colorless; free of writing
campo	country	camp	place for tents or temporary shelter
codo	elbow	code	a system of signals
despertador	alarm clock	desperate	almost beyond hope
dirección	address	direction	the way to go; authoritative instruction
cola	tail	cola	drink
plata	silver	plate	sheet of metal, food dish

BEST PRACTICE Nuances of Meaning

- For adolescent learners, the teacher provides a list of a dozen common emotions (love, anger, fear, and fright are the big four; a few others are thankfulness, doubt, guilt, surprise, contempt, delight, hunger, nervousness).
- Students, working in pairs, make up situations that would engender the emotion.
- Rich discussion about nuances of meaning might result!

Acquiring Vocabulary

Word Knowledge What does it mean to “know” a word? Recognizing a word involves matching stored meaning with meaning derived from context. In addition, knowing a word includes the ability to pronounce the word correctly, to use it grammatically in a sentence, and to know with which morphemes it is appropriately connected. This knowledge is acquired as the brain absorbs and interacts with the meaning in context, possibly due to the important role that context plays in forming episodic memory—memory that is tied to emotionally rich experience.

Nation (1990) lists the following as the types of word knowledge necessary for complete comprehension of a given word: its spoken form, written form, grammatical behavior, collocational behavior (what words are frequently found next to the word), frequency, stylistic register constraints (such as formal/informal contexts), conceptual meaning, and word associations (such as connotations). In contrast, Scrivener (2005) posits thirty-two dimensions of a lexical item; he includes such features as homonyms and homophones, personal feelings about a word, appropriacy for certain social situations and contexts, and visual images that people typically have for the word. This makes “knowing” a word even more complicated!

Vocabulary knowledge can be *passive*, *controlled active*, or *free active* (Laufer & Paribakht, 1998). Passive knowledge involves understanding the most frequent meaning of a word (e.g., *break*—He breaks a pencil). Controlled active knowledge can be described as cued recall (e.g., The railway con _____ the city with its suburbs), and free active knowledge describes the ability to spontaneously use words. Each type of knowledge develops at a different rate, with passive understanding growing faster than active word use. Passive vocabulary is always larger than active vocabulary.

Many methods have been used to teach vocabulary during second-language acquisition; rote memorization of lists or flash cards with words and meanings can be very effective, especially

TABLE 2.7 Examples of Cognitive Academic Words by Approximate Grade Level

Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
connect	measure	indent	define	summarize	minimum
check	width	proofread	method	evidence	initial
ruler	margin	paragraph	highlight	energy	estimate
period	dictionary	hyphen	environment	positive	factor
capital letter	schedule	topic	exhibit	gender	percent
grade	label	graph	layer	nuclear	simulate
mistake	draft	edit	region	source	transfer
chalk	chart	ignore	research	substitute	variable
file	margin	select	style	theme	volume

when picture cues are provided. Rich experience of new words in the context of their use is the way words are usually acquired in the first language. Games such as Pictionary and Total Physical Response are useful when objects and actions are simple. More nuanced or complex knowledge requires careful work at all the levels described earlier by Nation (1990).

Academic Vocabulary Acquiring the vocabulary used to educate is essential to school success; it is a large part of what Cummins (1979) called *cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP)*. This vocabulary has been compiled by various researchers (see, for example, Bromberg, Liebb, & Traiger, 2005; Huntley, 2006). Although no exhaustive list exists of academic terms by grade level, Table 2.7 presents academic terms by approximate grade level. Table 2.8 displays examples of academic vocabulary.

BEST PRACTICE Key Principles for Teaching Vocabulary

- Teach vocabulary with collocations—words that co-appear commonly (for example, the verb *lose* is presented as “lose your way,” “lose your temper,” “lose your keys,” etc.)
- Teach vocabulary within its grammatical environment (for example, verbs are always introduced with *to*—“to apply,” “to return”)
- Emphasize register (teach where, when, with whom a word is used; in a formal or informal setting?)
- Emphasize word form (does it include a prefix or suffix as a clue toward meaning?)
- Emphasize connotation (nuances of meaning differentiating one word from another)

Source: Daloğlu (2005).

TABLE 2.8 Examples of Academic Vocabulary

access	available	component	element	sufficient
adjust	capacity	confirm	emphasis	supplement
alter	clarify	consistent	instance	survey
approach	comment	contrast	random	undergo
aspect	complex	core	specific	visible

Source: From Huntley (2006).

TABLE 2.9 Semantic Shifts When Writing

Informal Register	Formal Register
you know	it is evident
a lot of, a whole bunch of	multiple
getting (dark, warm)	becoming
a piece of	a component of
to take a chance	to attempt
to make an offer	to offer
to keep on doing	to continue

Semantic Shifts

Language users must become aware of the semantic requirements when writing. It may be understandable when a speaker overuses the colloquial “you know” when telling a story, but in written English, one must shift toward more formal expression. Learning to make this shift is an important part of cognitive academic language proficiency. Only in certain types of writing—such as literature when a colloquial dialect is expressed, or in gonzo journalism, a flamboyant, first-person genre—is the colloquial form acceptable.

Teachers can emphasize this semantic shift by, for example, using a chart that compares “talk written down”

with “more thoughtful writing.” Table 2.9 contrasts these two writing styles as semantic shifts.

Semantics is a domain in which growth must be sustained at every level of schooling and in every content domain. Teacher education, for example, has its own lexicon; prospective teachers are asked to master such terms as *assertive discipline*, *wait-time*, *manipulatives*, *mind mapping*, *retelling*, *writing genre*, *mini-lesson*, and so forth. Demonstrating proficiency in these and similar terms is a measure of professionalism.

Language Functions and Academic Discourse

Language proficiency is not an end in itself; language is used for various purposes—to solve problems, communicate feelings, or keep records as people go about their daily routines. Halliday (1978) has distinguished seven different functions for language: *instrumental* (getting needs met), *regulatory* (controlling others’ behavior), *informative* (communicating information), *interactional* (establishing and maintaining social relationships), *personal* (expressing individuality), *heuristic* (investigating and acquiring knowledge), and *imaginative* (expressing fantasy or possibility).

In every situation, participants are expected to use language to carry out specific routines. One of the important tasks of kindergarten and first-grade teachers is to teach children how to respond appropriately in the school setting. As students acquire a second language—English—they are exposed to a distinct set of language functions that are specially adapted for school. Language functions used in schools are not necessarily academic; many are regulatory (maintaining order, for example), instrumental (setting up activities), and interpersonal (carrying out social relations). Confusion and a sense of alienation can arise for English learners who are used to the school routines in their own countries and face the unexpected in U.S. schools.

A knowledgeable teacher recognizes that these students are acting according to the routines with which they are familiar. It may take time—and explicit language coaching—for students to learn the language functions appropriate for a U.S. school context. In school, language is used differently than in the experiences of everyday life. This can work to the benefit of English learners if educators can affirm the voices that students bring to school and encourage them to build the second language on the knowledge they have gained in their first language, thus increasing their academic potential.

Academic Language Functions

Academic language functions include explaining, informing, justifying, comparing, describing, proving, debating, and so forth. There is some overlap in the terminology of academic functions

Classroom discourse patterns involve students as active language users.



Marco Saroldi/Shutterstock

and of thinking skills. Academic English—also called CALP—is designed for abstract, decontextualized performance across a variety of content domains, which requires a long period of successful schooling; exposure to academic language, feedback, and support in its use by students; and explicit instruction in vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and cognitive strategies (see Chapter 5). Table 2.10 aligns academic language functions with typical phrases that are used during that function.

Academic language often includes such functions as reporting, evaluating, questioning, and critiquing. Many other functions are not necessarily encouraged by schools but take place nonetheless: interrupting, shifting the blame, threatening, accusing, arguing, demanding, and making excuses. Learners must begin to understand how language functions to acquire written as well as spoken competence in the effort to match forms with functions.

TABLE 2.10 Phrases Associated with Academic Functions of Language

Function of Language	Sample Phrase(s)
indicating cause and effect	therefore, as a result, gradually
providing example	for instance, that is, one sample, such as, in fact
comparing	like, likewise, similarly, in much the same way, equally
emphasizing	moreover, chiefly, above all
indicating sequence	in the first place, starting with, consequently, finally
summarizing	to conclude, in other words, thus

Providing English learners with opportunities to engage in the various functions of language is critical for enabling them to develop a full range of proficiency in English. In school, however, rarely do teachers allow students to practice “out of school” social functions; the emphasis is usually on language functions necessary for the work of learning.

BEST PRACTICE Acquiring Language Functions

- *Instrumental*: Students practice a list of ways to request actions of others, including “Could you . . .” “Would you mind. . . .”
- *Regulatory*: Students take turns acting as timekeeper and taskmaster in cooperative groups.
- *Informative*: Students keep records of classroom pets, weather patterns, or commonly misspelled words on a bulletin board.
- *Interactional*: Students work together to plan field trips, social events, and classroom and school projects.
- *Personal*: Students use personal language in a journal and then share their thoughts and opinions on a voluntary basis.
- *Heuristic*: During projects, students brainstorm questions about which no one knows the answer.
- *Imaginative*: Students “play” with language—the sounds of words and the images they convey.

Source: Adapted from Pinnell (1985).

Oral and Written Discourse

Discourse is classified using various dimensions, such as *written versus spoken*. Other dimensions include *register* (formal versus informal in tone, vocabulary, and content) and *genre* (a combination of communicative purpose, audience, and format) as well as considerations of number—*monologic, dialogic, or multiparty* (how many are involved) (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2001). Many kinds of analysis have been used in examining discourse: studies of information structure, coherence, cohesion, turn-taking, and critical discourse analysis.

Discourse analysis can be defined as the study of language “beyond the sentence.” Discourse might be characterized as “language associated with a particular activity, a particular kind of knowledge, a particular group of people or a particular institution” (Peim, 1993, p. 194). The study of discourse looks at language in its larger units, such as oral text (classroom talk, speeches, casual conversation) and written text (magazine articles, school assignments, signs, and posters). Discourse specialists have looked at such behavior as how people take turns, how speakers use contextual cues as they interact, and how people show others they are listening. These features are heavily influenced by culture.

The Discourse of Academia

What does it mean to use language for academic purposes? An educated person lives in a world in which discourse is used for a wide range of purposes. For many, literacy at work has become highly computer dependent, with word processing, databases, telephone number files, e-mail, and Internet-based activities, as well as paper dependent, with piles of various

folders containing information, along with books, journals, and newsletters. At home, personal literacy may include cookbooks, hobby materials, newsmagazines, correspondence, and bill-paying. All these reading materials have their own place, time, and task orientation.

Literacy practices are activities that form discourses within the culture or society at large. By the time a student enters undergraduate education, the discourse demands are intense: reading course syllabi, textbooks, study guides, handouts, laboratory manuals, tests, online materials, and reference materials; listening to lectures and peer discussions; writing tests, research papers, and other notes; making formal oral presentations; and informally contributing orally in class or in group working sessions. English learners must prepare for these discourse registers and activities in elementary and secondary school programs.

The demands of producing and understanding academic discourse depend not only on acquiring cognitive academic language proficiency, but also on developing qualities such as persistence, rapport with one's teachers, and attunement to the demands of the task, as well as the ability to seek, obtain, and benefit from help. These personality features help an individual accommodate the demands of a situation.

Success in previous schooling makes present and future accommodations easier. The peer culture must sustain patterns of academic activity; the parental/cultural standards of achievement must also be appropriately demanding and supportive; and the school must enforce high educational standards, with expert management, well-certified staff, and adequate resources. In this way, the individual is situated within a social and cultural context that sustains academic activity.

Oral Discourse in the Classroom

Classroom discourse is a special type of conversation. Intonation, pausing, and phrasing determine when one person's turn to speak is over and the next person's turn begins. Markers signal the circulation of power. As Foucault (1979) noted, discursive practices in the modern world prepare the individual for power. Schooling can shape an average person into a "good" student using discourse.

Good language learners are able to gain access to a variety of conversations in their communities. The communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in which they participate—even peripherally—provide access to the utterances of others and the cultural practices they need to become engaged in community life. This means that the community of practice in a classroom does as much to create a good learner as the individual's cognition and striving.

Linguistic features are useful ways to examine classroom discourse. Turn markers governing who takes the floor signal speaking and listening. Some listeners nod frequently, and others offer eye contact or feedback such as "hmm," "uh huh," and "yeah." If a teacher is speaking, the type of listening that a learner signals is an important part of that learner's image in the mind of the teacher. If someone seems uninterested or uncomprehending (whether or not they truly are), the speaker tends to slow down, repeat, or overexplain, giving the impression of "talking down."

The Recitation Pattern: A Typical Learning Encounter Classrooms in the United States often follow a model of instruction based on recitation. Typically, the pattern has three parts, called the IRE sequence. First, the teacher initiates (I) an interaction by asking a question. A student responds (R), and the teacher follows up with evaluation (E). Alternatively, this may be called the IRF pattern, replacing the term *evaluation* with *feedback* (F), which consists not only of praise or disguised evaluation but also of reformulation, repetition of the student's answer, and summarizing or delivering information.

The IRE pattern shares characteristics of other kinds of teacher talk. The teacher not only produces the most language but also takes the most turns. Questions asked in this way usually call for simple information recall, and the responses are limited to this type of thinking. The teacher tends to ask “known-answer” questions in which students’ responses can be easily evaluated (Pridham, 2001). The IRE pattern is easy to identify, partially because of its prevalence.

Invitation to respond:

Teacher: Who knows why names are capitalized? (Some students are wildly waving their hands, begging to be chosen to respond; others are averting their eyes, hoping *not* to be called on) Alma?

Response:

Alma: It’s somebody’s name.

Evaluation or Feedback:

Teacher: That’s true. Good, Alma.

Invitation to respond: (pattern repeats) . . .

Teacher: But who can tell me what the term for that is?

The IRE is not the only discourse pattern in which the teacher dominates, but it is the most frequent. In teacher-fronted classrooms in general, the teacher takes the central role in controlling the flow of information, and students compete for attention and permission to speak. English learners are dependent on their ability to understand the teacher’s explanations and directions.

Clearly the IRE pattern has positive instructional features—to activate students’ prior knowledge about a topic, review material already covered, present new information, calm a noisy room, check on the general state of group knowledge on a topic, or evaluate the discipline and cooperation of individual students. This evaluation of the student seems to shape a teacher’s academic expectations for that student. Many features of the recitation pattern work for the benefit of instruction, although the same features that benefit some students may create difficulties for English learners (see Table 2.11).

Recitation Pattern: Questioning Strategies Through skilled questioning, teachers lead discussions and ascertain students’ understanding. Questions should be framed to match students’ proficiency levels and to evoke the level of critical or creative thinking sought in the response. Teachers who are sensitive to varying cultural styles are aware that in some cultures students are reluctant to display knowledge before a large group. The teacher must organize other means for students to demonstrate language and content knowledge, such as small-group discussions.

A hierarchy of question types can be matched to students’ proficiency levels. Beginning English learners in the “silent period” may be asked a question requiring a nonverbal response—a head movement, pointing, or manipulating materials. Once students begin to speak, either/or questions allow them merely to choose the correct word or phrase to demonstrate understanding: “Is the water evaporating or condensing?” and “Did explorers come to the Americas from Europe or Asia?” Once students can produce language, *wh*-questions are appropriate: “What is happening to the water?” “Which countries sent explorers to the Americas?” and “What was the purpose of their exploration?”

TABLE 2.11 Positive and Negative Features of the IRF for English Learners

Positive Features	Possible Negative Features for English Learners
<i>Invitation to Bid</i>	
Teacher waits for silence and imposes order on student behavior.	English learners may not appear as attentive as English speakers because they might have difficulty comprehending instruction.
Teacher controls the scope of the lesson by asking selected questions.	English learners may need more time than English speakers to understand questions and frame responses.
Teacher determines order and importance of information by posing questions.	Students with creative and individualistic thinking may wish to contribute related ideas outside the scope of the immediate topic.
Teacher controls the level of language displayed in class by choice of lexicon and complexity of sentence structure.	Instructional language, including vocabulary, may be too complex for English learners.
Teacher controls pace and rhythm of discourse.	Pace and rhythm of discourse may be different in students' native language, causing discomfort.
<i>Response</i>	
Teacher evaluates behavior of individuals by looking to see who is willing and ready to participate.	English learners may be reluctant to bring attention to themselves because they are insecure about their oral language, see such an action as incompatible with group cohesiveness and cultural norms, or are reluctant to display knowledge in front of others.
Teacher controls potential for reward by choosing respondent.	
By acting eager to answer, students can demonstrate responsiveness to instruction, attention, and cooperation even if they do not really know the answer the teacher expects to hear.	Students may lack experience in particular topics under discussion, although their background may be rich in topics that are not curriculum related.
Teacher controls behavior by calling on students who may not be attentive.	Students from cultures in which children do not make direct eye contact with adults may not appear attentive during instruction.
Students can practice risk-taking by volunteering to answer.	English learners may be reluctant to volunteer to answer if they are not 100 percent sure their idea is correct and their culture does not reward ambiguity.
Students can show knowledge whether from prior instruction or experience.	
<i>Evaluation (Feedback)</i>	
Teacher is able to evaluate students' level of oral participation.	Students may need prior language development in oral participation, including turn-taking, listening, and speaking.
Teacher is able to use teacher approval as a reinforcer.	
Teacher is able to establish public recognition for those who answer correctly.	Students from certain cultures may not depend on teacher for approval.
Teacher may use the evaluation turn to correct sentence grammar.	Individual public recognition may be taboo in some cultures.

(continued)

TABLE 2.11 Positive and Negative Features of the IRF for English Learners *Continued*

Positive Features	Possible Negative Features for English Learners
<i>Evaluation (Feedback) (Continued)</i>	
Teacher can withhold negative evaluation by partially accepting an incomplete answer.	Research shows that second-language grammar is not improved by public correction of grammar, but by gradual acquisition of forms during language input and output.
Teacher can avoid direct negative evaluation by asking one student to “help” another to improve an answer.	Indirect negative evaluation may be confusing for some students, leaving them with unclear concept formation.
Teacher may evaluate students’ success in the recitation pattern as an indicator of facility with “display knowledge” cultural pattern.	Students who are unfamiliar with “display knowledge” cultural pattern may appear uncooperative.
Teacher can elaborate on answer and expand a concept by delivering direct instruction at this point.	Students who are not rewarded by encouragement of more complex questions and responses gradually receive fewer hours of attention and instruction.
Teacher can improve a poor answer by substituting more correct terminology or restating a sentence in more correct grammar.	
As teacher evaluates students’ responses, he or she determines what question comes next.	

If a teacher is seeking evaluative responses requiring critical thinking by means of questioning strategies, more wait-time is necessary for students to understand the question and frame a thoughtful response. Bias is avoided if all respondents are given equal feedback and support in increasing the cognitive complexity of the answer.

Teachers of English learners cannot avoid using teacher-fronted discourse patterns to some extent, because of the legacy of traditional teaching discourse. However, awareness of its strengths (in summary, ease of use, effectiveness for controlling attention and behavior, and diagnosis of a learner’s responsiveness) and weaknesses (for example, lack of emphasis on learner oral production, limited peer interaction, and inequity of reinforcement) may encourage teachers to better focus the use of teacher-fronted discourse for English learners.

Cooperative Learning as a Discourse Alternative The organization of discourse is important for second-language acquisition in content classes. Classrooms that feature flexible grouping patterns and cooperative learning permit students greater access to the flow of information as they talk and listen to peers, interact with the teacher or another adult in small groups, and use their home language for clarification purposes.

In cooperative-learning classrooms, the style of teacher talk often changes: Teachers assist students with the learning tasks, give fewer commands, and impose less disciplinary control. The teacher plans tasks so that students use language in academic ways. Students are placed in different groups for different activities. Teachers work with small groups to achieve specific instructional objectives (e.g., in literature response groups or instructional conversations, as discussed next).

The Instructional Conversation as a Discourse Alternative An instructional discourse format called the *instructional conversation* is one alternative to a teacher-fronted classroom. With a group of six to eight students, the teacher acts as a discussion leader, following up a literature, social studies, or math lesson with a directed conversation that invites a deeper

understanding of the topic. The focus is on assisted understanding of complex ideas, concepts, and texts, as well as encouraging a more satisfying intellectual relationship between teacher and students.

Learning to manage and appreciate the instructional conversation takes time, but many teachers find that the increased attention paid to students' assisted thinking reaps great benefits in increased understanding of students' thought processes as well as in students' sense of instructional co-ownership. It is difficult for most teachers to keep silent and let students think and volunteer their thoughts in good time, to move the conversation forward by building on students' ideas rather than the teacher's, to select topics that students find genuinely interesting and comprehensible, and to have patience with English learners' struggle to find the words for their thoughts. However, the rewards are great—a satisfying instructional conversation is the event for which, at heart, every good teacher yearns.

Discourse That Affirms Students' Voices Throughout this book, the emphasis is on the co-participation of the learner in learning. It is imperative that teachers encourage the language that is needed and desired by the student, and if that desire does not exist, to evoke those emotions and motivations as an integral part of instruction. Instruction—particularly in a second language—that is not meaningful and motivating to the learner becomes empty.

What kind of participation enhances motivation and promotes acquisition? *Co-construction of meaning* permits the learner to plan, choose, and evaluate knowledge in relation to personal needs and goals. *Participatory genres* help the student to bridge the home/school divide. For example, the “talk-story” of Hawai’ian culture, when brought into the classroom, can open up the discourse around reading. By working in acknowledgment of, rather than at cross-purposes to, these community patterns of discourse, teachers can choose modifications to teacher-fronted discourse that will be successful for a particular group of learners.

In summary, using the tools of ethnography and community participation, teachers can learn how to help the learner participate in meaningful English-language instruction. Studying how the community uses discourse can help teachers pattern their classroom activities in ways that increase the likelihood that students' English proficiency will grow.

Pragmatics: The Influence of Context and Nonverbal Language

Pragmatics is the study of communication in context. It includes three major communication skills. The first is the ability to use language for different functions—greeting, informing, demanding, promising, requesting, and so on. The second involves appropriately adapting or changing language according to the listener or situation—talking differently to a friend than to a principal or speaking differently in a classroom than on a playground. The third skill is the ability to follow rules for conversations and narrative, knowing how to tell a story, give a book report, or recount events of the day.

Linguists who study pragmatics examine the ways that people take turns in conversation, introduce topics and stay on topic, and rephrase their words when they are misunderstood, as well as how people use nonverbal signals in conversation: body language, gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, and distance between speaker and listener. Because these pragmatic ways of using speech vary depending on language and culture, teachers who understand these differences can help learners adjust their pragmatics to those that “work” when speaking English.

Registers: Appropriate Language

To speak appropriately, the speaker must take into account the gender, status, age, and cultural background of the listener. For example, a teacher's assistant in a classroom may be an older woman who shares the language and culture of the children and addresses students in a manner similar to the way she interacts with her own children, whereas the teacher might use more formal language. Similarly, a former second-grade teacher who takes a job at the sixth-grade level must learn to make adjustments in tone of voice to an appropriate level for older students.

Various *language registers* match language to contexts—whether the classroom, a social event, a store, or different types of written correspondence—using a formal or informal tone, specific vocabulary and sentence structures, or even vocal pitch changes to suit different situations. Language registers are in turn enveloped by other verbal and nonverbal clues. In written genres, for example, the paper and ink quality varies according to the purpose and content of the written message; for oral genres, variation can be found in the distance between speakers, the roles of men versus women, and the tone and pitch of the voice.

There is a great contrast, for example, in the pitch of a kindergarten teacher's voice when reading a story aloud (usually a high-pitched, “breathy” pitch, often associated with the tone a mother uses with a child) versus a high school football coach's instruction on the gridiron (gruff and “manly”). These differences are adapted to the verbal and nonverbal—sometimes physical—features of the context. Factors that affect a speaker's or writer's choice of pragmatic features include cultural and social norms, the social and physical setting, goals and purpose of the language used, the identities of the participants, the subject matter involved, and the role of the speaker or writer vis-à-vis the audience.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Learning to Be Appropriate

In preparation for a drama unit, Mrs. Morley has her students develop short conversations that might occur with different people in different situations, such as selling ice cream to a child, a teenager, a working adult, and a retiree. Pairs of students perform their conversations and the class critiques the appropriateness of the language. Students develop a feel for appropriate expressions, tones, and stances before working on plays and skits.

Registers may involve conventions of intonation, vocabulary, or topic that meet the needs of the people and the tasks to be performed in that situation. For example, car advertising commercials filmed locally often use “car commercial register,” a kind of frenzied tone performed by a man speaking loudly and quickly, whereas airline pilots who use the public address system of the airplane adopt a folksy tone, a “captain register” that is reassuring and paternal. Kindergarten teachers who read fairy tales aloud use storytelling register, featuring a tone of wonder and suppressed excitement. Understanding *register shifts* enables a language user to adapt to these rules.

Formal oral presentations, for example, may resemble written language, with scholarly sounding words, passive voice, or use of the subjunctive, because many speakers write out a presentation in advance. Informal, casual speech often features contractions, slang, and incomplete sentences (Cipollone, Keiser, & Vasisht, 1998). Table 2.12 displays a variety of registers that students might master for use in a classroom.

TABLE 2.12 Typical Oral Registers in the Classroom

Register	Description or Example
Student response register	A firm tone, spoken confidently, that reaches all other students in the room
Leadership register	The voice of roll call, the call to line up for lunch, or the call to be quiet and listen
Classroom presentation register	Involves eye contact with an audience, confident bearing, pleasing and varied tone of voice, and an inviting sense of two-way communication with listeners
Dramatic register	Spoken dialogue in a play, in the role of narrator or announcer; it is “larger than life,” with exaggerated emotion and voice
Storytelling to children	Features simplification and a sense of warmth and intimacy, no matter what the size of the crowd

BEST PRACTICE Training Students in Oral Register Shifts

- Set up opportunities for situated practice, require oral presentations, stage dramatic events, and engage older students in storytelling to children.
- Offer repeated trials with feedback to help students improve the ability to shift registers.
- Let students take the initiative in creating settings and events for a variety of register usages that require leadership and talent in language use.
- Apply strategies for identifying and addressing difficulties English learners may encounter in comprehending regional dialects or other varieties of English.
- Create an instructional environment that respects English learners’ home language and variety of English.

A key aspect of learning to be appropriate is understanding how to take turns. Native speakers of a language have internalized guidelines for when to speak, when to remain silent, how long to speak, how long to remain silent, how to give up “the floor,” how to enter into a conversation, and so on, including how to show respect when doing so. Linguistic devices such as intonation, pausing, and phrasing are used to signal an exchange of turns. In some cultures, people wait for a clear pause before beginning their turn to speak, whereas others start while the speaker is winding down.

In some cultures, overlapping a turn with the speaker is acceptable; in other cultures, this is considered rude and causes feelings of unease or hostility. Some children can interrupt instruction without receiving negative sanction, whereas others are chided for frequent interruption. Punishing some students while letting others take unwarranted turns is tantamount to linguistic discrimination. To avoid this, a skilled teacher instructs second-language students about how to get turns and monitors instruction to ensure fairness. (It is difficult to see one’s own behavior in this; it is best for the teacher to ask a peer to observe.)

Nonverbal Communication

An important part of the pragmatic dimension of language is the complex nonverbal system that accompanies, complements, or takes the place of the verbal: “An elaborate and secret code that is written nowhere, known by none, and understood by all” (Sapir, quoted in Miller, 1985). This nonverbal system, estimated to account for up to 93 percent of communication (Mehrabian, 1968), involves sending and receiving messages through eye contact, facial expression, gesture, posture, and tone of voice.

Everyone is adept at sending and receiving these nonverbal messages, but, as in oral language, people are often unconscious of the information they are receiving. Because this nonverbal system accounts for a large part of the emotional message given and received, awareness of its various aspects helps teachers to recognize when students’ nonverbal messages may not fit with expected school norms.

Body Language The way one holds and positions oneself—one’s body language—is a means of communication. Body language can convey power and confidence, or submission and timidity, merely by the tilt of the head, the position of the shoulders, or the grip of a handshake. Body language, and the meanings it conveys, is dependent both on culture and gender, as well as other factors such as age and social class.

Gestures—expressive motions or actions made with hands, arms, head, or even the whole body—are ways to add meaning to verbal language or to substitute for words. Through the use of eyebrows, eyes, cheeks, nose, lips, tongue, and chin, people nonverbally signal any number of emotions, opinions, and moods.

Eye contact is another communication device that is highly variable. Many folk sayings express the idea that “the eyes are the windows of the soul,” and it is important for some that the gaze be direct but not too bold. Eyes can reveal or hide emotions; not only the gaze but also the shape of the eye and even the size of the pupil convey emotions.

Conceptions of Space and Time Physical distance between people, the invisible “bubble” that defines individual personal space, varies according to relationships. People usually stand closest to relatives, close to friends, and farther from strangers. Coming too close can be interpreted as aggressive behavior; conversely, staying too far away may be perceived as cold. Teachers with students of many cultures in their classes may have the opportunity to observe many spatial facets of communication.

Use of time, even daily rhythms, varies across cultures. Hall (1959) pointed out that for speakers of English, time is treated as a material object—a commodity—rather than an objective experience. English expressions include “saving time,” “spending time,” and “wasting time.” Teachers often reprove students for idling and admonish students to “get busy.” Standardized tests record higher scores for students who work quickly. In fact, teachers correlate rapid learning with intelligence.

With an awareness of mainstream U.S. conceptions of time, teachers become more understanding of students and families whose time values differ from their own. Some students may need more time to express themselves orally because the timing of oral discourse is slower in their culture. Parents who were raised in cultures with radically different concepts of time may not be punctual for parent conferences. One group of teachers allowed for this by designating blocks of three hours when they would be available for conferences, letting parents arrive when they could without fixed appointment times. Thus, teachers’ accommodation to the intercultural pragmatics of the situation was key to an improved school climate.

Evaluating the Pragmatic Features of School Programs

Intercultural pragmatics often involves concepts, feelings, and attitudes that are difficult for teachers and school administrators to discuss. Some teachers, lacking a more nuanced vocabulary, focus on teaching students *manners*, a term that carries a variety of meanings, from interpersonal respect to reliance on traditional, hierarchical adult–child rituals. Seeing others’ beliefs, values, and behaviors through the lens of one’s own culture often means that others’ culturally based behavior—that of students and their families—is viewed as wrong, maladapted, or rude. Teachers who avoid the trap of “right” versus “wrong” can set an open and accepting tone.

Making the pragmatic features of the school and other settings explicit for English learners helps students engage in oral and written discourse that is appropriate for a given context, purpose, and audience. One teacher wrote a *Welcome Book* for newcomers to the classroom that explained routines, procedures, expected behaviors, and shared values. A student’s “buddy” would have the chance every day to go over sections of the manual with the newcomer, and a copy was sent home. This helped students and their families know what to expect.

Dialects and Language Variation

The language used in a certain context varies not only according to pragmatic factors of register shift (cultural and social norms, social and physical setting, goals, purpose, participants, audience, and subject matter) but also in long-term variations that influence the way people produce language. An oral dialect is evinced when people talk a certain way in order to feel appropriate within a given context. Teachers who take such variation into consideration communicate respect and understanding of contextual influences on English-language use, and find ways to communicate acceptance and affirmation of the dialects in English that students have acquired.

Within the first few seconds of listening to the voice of a stranger, native speakers can usually identify not only whether the speaker’s voice is familiar but also a host of other information about that person. When conversing with a stranger, it takes a relatively short time to draw conclusions about a speaker’s regional, social, or ethnic background. A *dialect* refers to those aspects of speech that are characteristic of speakers who share regional, social class, and/or ethnic origin.

Dialects and the Education of English Learners

Language educators cannot help being influenced by dialect considerations. Often a “standard” version of English is taught in the ELD curriculum, but English learners are immersed in a variety of dialects in their neighborhoods. It therefore makes sense to discuss dialects in the ELD classroom, to help English learners understand and honor the variety of dialects in the world around them.

A student’s dialect may affect teacher expectations. The ELD teacher may be tempted to oversimplify classroom language to match students’ acquisition level. Finding the appropriate balance of language knowledge, pedagogical skill, dialect accommodation, and standard-language modeling is a challenge for teachers of English learners.

One important question is whether ESL teachers should model Standard English. In many urban schools, bilingual (Spanish–English) teachers are in demand in elementary schools, and

personnel administrators do not seem to see Spanish-accented English as a negative in this context. However, some personnel administrators still seem to prefer to hire high school English teachers who are native-English speakers, or who speak English without a “foreign” accent.

A central issue, that of honoring the dialect of the learner, means finding the appropriate balance between respecting the home dialect of the student and modeling and teaching Standard English. Prejudice may be an issue in ESL contexts. Speakers of a regional dialect (for example, a Mexican American dialect in Fresno) may not be accorded the same respect as speakers of Standard English. Yet within a specific community, a dialect may be the norm. Should English teachers enforce Standard English even if it is not the norm in the students’ community? Thus, dialect issues are also issues of social power and status in society.

Students who speak nonstandard dialects are often very aware when they have difficulty acquiring standard forms for academic writing and avoiding stereotyping and discrimination (Nero, 1997). But they are also aware that their very identity and deepest values are linked to their language, leading to potential conflicts in self-evaluation and acculturation—but also to possible positive biculturality (see Bosher, 1997). The role of dialect is complex. This section examines dialect from a linguist’s point of view: common features of dialects, how dialects reflect social and ethnic differences, what types of attitudes people have toward dialects, and how dialects affect style.

Common Features That Constitute Dialects

Why do languages have dialects? Language differences go hand-in-hand with social differentiation. People speak differently because they are physically separated (regional dialects) or because they are socially separated (by means of economic ecology and social stratification). A third explanation is based on linguistic differences between the dialects themselves.

Regional Dialects Sometimes physical terrain keeps dialects isolated and intact. In the United States, the geographic isolation of some Southern communities has given rise to so-called Appalachian English. The overall dialect terrain of the United States is an example of regional dialects. The four distinct dialects that most Americans find recognizable in the United States today can be roughly characterized as (1) New York City, (2) New England, (3) the South, and (4) everyone else. The use of these dialects often has cultural implications.

Social-Stratification Dialects Within social groups, language establishes and maintains social distinctions. Sociolinguistics is the study of social variables in language, such as social class, status, gender, level of education, and so on. If people want to be considered a part of a particular social group, they consciously or unconsciously adopt the vocabulary items, pronunciation, and grammatical patterns of that group. This is easy to see in the case of teenage slang. Even when people’s language receives negative social evaluation from mainstream English speakers, they continue to use the language of their in-group. Features of the dialect may be associated with ethnic solidarity, whereas speaking in the mainstream style may cause loss of friends or weakening of family ties. It is not uncommon for speakers to try to live in two or more linguistic worlds.

Deeper Syntactic Causes for Dialects The third explanation for the origin and persistence of dialects is based on linguistic analysis. Double negation within a sentence, as in the Southern U.S. dialect construction “The dog didn’t like nobody,” is also found in European languages. Deletion of the copula (“They late”) is a feature of African American Vernacular

English (AAVE) but also of Chinese and other languages. Lack of the 's in the possessive structure ("that man hat") in AAVE is true for other possessive structures in English ("her hat"); similarly, the lack of the noun plural ending ("four girl") in AAVE is common in many languages. Thus, dialects persist based on the ways in which languages are constructed.

How Dialects Exhibit Social and Ethnic Differences

Whether dialects have a regional, social, or linguistic explanation, speakers acquire a dialect of English based on the language used by others of their region, social class, and native language. The most obvious form of dialect usage is in the sound of the language—the *accent*. People use accent to make judgments on a range of personal qualities and capabilities, such as innate intelligence, morality, and employability. Just because someone speaks with an accent does not mean he or she is less competent in the language. In fact, as Lippi-Green asserts,

[D]egree of accentedness, whether from L1 interference, or a socially or geographically marked language variety, cannot predict the level of an individual's competency in the target language. In fact . . . high degrees of competence are often attained by persons with especially strong L2 accents. (1997, p. 70)

Standard pronunciation (an accent known as General American or Midwestern) has become associated with high-status occupations, such as doctors, lawyers, professionals, and executives of large companies. Thus, language variation is associated with a person's economic activity. Economic discrimination based on language is enforced by means of informal, often invisible, social networks that intersect with social-class stratification.

Many people live in communities in which people are multidialectic, code-switching back and forth easily between multiple languages, each with its own repertoire of styles. To overcome the negative effects of social stratification, many people who are nonnative speakers of English seek to lose the accent that they feel hinders them from assimilating into the mainstream. On the other hand, in many cultures the dialect they speak is the mainstream, and to acquire any other accent risks social stigma. In some cultures, being bilingual is acceptable only to a limited degree.

Attitudes Toward Dialects

People who are forbidden by law from discriminating against others on the basis of race or ethnicity may use accent as a means of social stigmatization or exclusion (Lippi-Green, 1997). Teachers may unwittingly communicate a negative social evaluation to a nonnative-English-speaking student by speaking louder, using shorter sentences, slowing speech, restricting vocabulary and range of topics, or signaling a patronizing attitude (curiously enough, this is also done to the elderly). This puts the nonnative-English speakers in a position of lower status.

Americans, consciously or unconsciously, view certain "foreign" languages as less prestigious than others. Because of racism, the French spoken by Haitians may not be evaluated as positively as French spoken by a Canadian. Status issues are prevalent in dialect differences among native speakers of English. In many parts of the world, the prestige form of British English is considered a preferable dialect to any form of American English.

Language is central to the identification of self and group. Teachers can damage the teacher–student relationship through prejudice or impair students' academic success through lower academic expectations. Student who are made to feel inferior for reasons of accent may internalize the shame associated with discrimination or maintain a negative attitude toward

learning English. As Lippi-Green (1997) states, “When an individual cannot find any social acceptance for her language outside her own speech communities, she may come to denigrate her own language, even when she continues to use it (p. 66).”

Dialects and Style

A speaker’s or writer’s choice of language variation for a given discourse may be influenced by the context or setting of the discourse and by the speaker’s age, gender, culture, level of education, social class, or vocation. Formal settings call for formal language; a student skilled in making this distinction may be chosen for public speaking at school assemblies.

Male–female differences have been shown in women’s greater pitch changes to show emotion, higher overall pitch, and greater use of expressive adjectives and intensifiers (Brend, 1975). Characteristics of female speech are related more to powerlessness than gender, suggesting that women have learned to use these linguistic forms because they have traditionally been relegated to relatively powerless social positions (O’Barr & Atkins, 1980). English educators may find that male and female learners acquire different dialects of English, transferring to English the different roles and speech patterns in the native language. For example, female students may be more reticent to speak than male students, or vice versa. In these cases, a teacher might openly discuss the differences and find ways to equalize speaking opportunities.

Vernacular Dialects and Language Teaching

Because accent and intonation patterns are important in second-language acquisition, students need to understand four basic truths about dialect usage in English: (1) One’s dialect, if widely used by the surrounding racial, ethnic, or cultural community, is equally valid as a subset of English as any other dialect; (2) dialects are often used as a basis for discrimination, combining with underlying issues of power and race relations; (3) it is common for individuals all over the world to learn more than one dialect of English and to switch from one dialect to another depending on the context; and (4) such features of dialect as accent can be altered, if so desired, by specific, albeit time-intensive, drill.

Teaching Standard English: Whose Standard? In a language as varied as English, there are naturally some who feel that it is important to establish a standard, or norm, against which usage is measured. Experts who publish grammar and usage books usually prescribe correct or standard language forms, but in English, no such standard in fact exists. Generally speaking, Standard American English is a composite of several subdialects spoken by the educated professional middle class. People seeking success in school and in the job market tend to adopt the language used by people in positions of power.

Many educators feel it is their right and privilege to enforce Standard English on their students. Teachers may subordinate the language of their students using a variety of messages, both overt and covert. Some teachers believe it is their right to correct students in public, to reprimand them for incorrect usage, or to refuse to communicate until a standard is reached (“You must answer in a complete sentence,” “I can’t understand you—say it again”) (Lippi-Green, 1997).

Varieties of language are a result of normal social processes rather than inadequacies of individual speakers. The unique voice of the student is lost if educators insist on the use of Standard English exclusively in the classroom. Just as the worldview of the Native American

Students speaking a nonstandard dialect of English are a rich source of language input to English learners in urban schools.



Feri/123RF

is lost if the indigenous language dies away, so is the interlanguage of the student lost if no one listens. By balancing the need to teach Standard English with the zest and delight in each individual's vernacular, education can become a reservoir of English-language diversity.



In summary, language affords rich and dynamic expression. Familiarity with the structures and functions of language helps teachers to promote English-language development while supporting students' self-expression in their primary languages. Teachers with knowledge about the various subsystems of language can recognize the effort involved in developing English ability and incorporate students' language-development objectives into all facets of the daily program.

Language is accompanied by a nonverbal system that surrounds and supports grammatical competence. Knowledge about and skill in nonverbal communication enhances teachers' rapport with students. Understanding the basics of language helps to make language learning a meaningful, purposeful, and shared endeavor.

This page intentionally left blank



First- and Second-Language Development Related to Academic Achievement

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter, you should be able to . . .

- Describe the stages of first- and second-language acquisition;
- Explain historical and contemporary theories of second-language learning; and
- Identify factors that influence second-language acquisition.

Processes and Stages of Language Acquisition

Learning a language—the first or the second (*second-language acquisition* means learning any language after the first, whether it is the second, third, etc.)—is only partially a conscious activity. Most people retain very little awareness of having actually learned the first language (L1). In contrast, people tend to remember learning the second language (L2), especially if it is learned in school. Often learners are self-conscious about their L2 abilities because their L2 proficiency often lags far behind that of their L1. Even so, some of the same unconscious processes that functioned in acquiring the first language continue to underlie acquisition of the second.

Learning a language, even for children, requires a fully functioning mind. The mind processes a vast amount of verbal and nonverbal input and extracts meaning. Perceptual processes (listening and looking at the world and listening to ourselves) operate together with automatic language centers (involving phonemic awareness, linear-syntactic assembly, emotional circuits, and speech production), which in turn are synthesized with higher-order thinking (cognitive processes such as memorization, categorization, generalization and overgeneralization, and metacognition) to produce and understand language. It is not uncommon for language-minority children to come home from school mentally fatigued from having to operate in their second language all day; adults are often cognitively drained after 50 minutes of a foreign-language class! But what is so “easy” about acquiring a first language, and so “difficult” about any languages after the first? Much research has taken place trying to understand that question.

First-Language Acquisition

By the age of five, a normal child can operate in the world with a full range of phonemic, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic skills. The pronunciation resembles that of surrounding speakers of the first language; the sentence structure is adequate; vocabulary amounts to several thousand words; and discourse skills include command of basic conversational skills, such as talking about a variety of topics with different audiences. Although parental input is useful for developing a large vocabulary, children are exposed to language from other speakers, whether other children, neighbors, or television.

Children seem to acquire their first language with a minimum of effort; thus many people believe that children are thus better at second-language acquisition than are adults. However, if one takes into account the fact that children by the age of five have experienced more than 25,000 hours of their first language (five years, plus a minimum of three prenatal months listening to language from the womb, minus about ten hours of sleep per day), any adult taking a 25,000-hour second-language “class” would probably “master” that language as well as children do their L1! The idea that second-language acquisition is easy for children than adults is a fallacy.

The Innateness Hypothesis A child not only imitates the language in the environment but also seeks out patterns and tests rules by creating novel sentences. Lenneberg (1967) claimed that language is a biologically controlled behavior that develops from within, triggered by age and environment. Direct teaching and intensive practice have little effect on this “unfolding,” but there are characteristic stages associated with language development. From birth to age two is a critical period for first-language emergence, during which crucial brain structures must develop. Throughout childhood, from ages two to ten, through intensive exposure to a second language a child may acquire native-speaker-like fluency and phonemic accuracy alongside that of the first language.

From the ages of ten to sixteen, an individual may still have somewhat enhanced capacity to learn a second language, but often the results are not on a par with native-speaker competence (Cipollone, Keiser, & Vasisht, 1998). Neurologists explain the critical period by comparing the relative amount that the brain changes by adding new synaptic connections and myelination during this time, compared with less of these increases during adulthood. However, the idea that the brain resists change past the age of eighteen has been debunked (Birdsong & Moils, 2001).

Stages of First-Language Acquisition After only a few weeks of crying, infants begin to coo in vowel-like sounds such as “oooooh” or “aaaaah” in addition to crying. At around three or four months, infants start to add consonant sounds to their cooing, and they begin

to babble at between four and six months of age using consonant and vowel sounds together. By the end of the first year, infants develop a sense of the role of language in communication (Lu, 2000).

When children first speak, they seem to utter single words to represent the whole meaning of an entire sentence, the so-called holophrastic utterance (Shaffer, 1999); for example, “ball” can mean “Throw me the ball” or “Where did the ball go?” Children’s first words are contextual and identify people or things or express needs. In their second year, children begin to produce two-word phrases; later, this expands to three or more words, generating simple sentences in “telegraphic speech” that contain mainly the essential content words, such as verbs and nouns, but omit the function words, such as articles, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, and pronouns. Although these first sentences seem to be ungrammatical in terms of adult standards, they have a structure of their own.

As children’s use of simple sentences increases, their sentences become increasingly elaborate and sophisticated. Language development, especially vocabulary growth and conversational skills, continues at a rapid pace throughout the preschool years. The development of conversational skills requires children to interact actively with other people. Through interacting with other, more experienced language users, children modify and elaborate their sentences in response to requests for more information, learn to take turns in speaking, and adjust their messages to their listeners’ level of understanding.

The Role of the First Language in Schooling Research has shown that proficiency in the first language helps students to achieve in school. To learn about a student’s strengths in the first language, a teacher, primary-language-speaking aide, or parent who is fluent in the language of the student might observe a student working or playing in the primary language and take notes on the child’s language behavior. Some schools may test students’ L1 proficiency using such measures as the Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM), which measures oral proficiency in English and/or Spanish grammatical structures. Knowledge about the student’s linguistic and academic abilities may assist the teacher in L2 academic content instruction. Certainly a classroom language policy that accepts and supports a child’s primary language results in increased learning.

Second-Language Acquisition

How many people can say they are truly fluent in more than one language? In many parts of the world, people undergo schooling in multiple foreign languages as a widely accepted component of being well educated. In Canada and elsewhere, the ability to communicate, read, and write in two languages is encouraged. Millions of people around the world are *multicompetent language users* (Cook, 1999), meaning their bilingualism or trilingualism acts as an asset to them or to their society.

The United States is one of the few countries in which a young person can graduate from secondary school without ever studying a second language. Yet many young people enter schooling fluent in a primary language other than English, a proficiency that can function as a resource. Ideally, schools can help students whose families speak a language other than English to sustain fluency and develop academic competence in their heritage language while acquiring fluency and literacy in English.

Types of Bilingualism Cummins (1979) analyzed the language characteristics of the children he studied and suggested that the level of bilingualism attained is an important factor in educational development. *Limited bilingualism*, or subtractive bilingualism, can occur when

children's first language is gradually replaced by a more dominant and prestigious language. In this case, children may develop relatively low levels of academic proficiency in both languages. *Partial bilingualism*, in which students achieve a nativelike level in one of their languages while acquiring the second, has neither positive nor negative cognitive effects. The most positive cognitive effects are experienced in *proficient (additive) bilingualism*, when students attain high levels of proficiency in both languages.

Researchers have speculated why being bilingual enhances cognition, increasing problem-solving skills, and even protecting against dementia in old age (Emmorey, Giezen, & Gollan, 2016). Some have posited that being bilingual strengthens the brain's executive functioning, which includes decision making and conscious use of strategies. According to Bhattacharjee (2012), one answer may be that bilingual individuals have a heightened ability to monitor the environment, creating a more efficient brain not only in areas of language, but also awareness in general.

DID YOU KNOW?

THE COGNITIVE BENEFITS OF BILINGUALISM

After the first three or four years of second-language instruction, students outperform their monolingual peers in many ways:

- Enhanced pattern recognition, problem solving, divergent thinking, and creativity
- Better metalinguistic and critical thinking
- Improved performance on standardized tests—not only verbal, but also mathematical
- Sharper task focus
- Increased understanding of the contextual use of language (Porter, 2010)

Simultaneous Dual-Language Acquisition Preschool bilingual programs are pushing the age ever lower for children to acquire a second language—almost at the same time as the first language. Parents and teachers sometimes express concern about children's ability to become proficient simultaneously in two languages. What does research indicate about such a process? Does this negatively affect first-language acquisition?

Before the age of three, children have acquired the basic elements of grammar: how words go together to make meaning. Bilingual children may sometimes mix the grammar and vocabulary of their two languages, but such errors are temporary; however, they rarely use phonemes of one language in the other unless their pronunciation models have an accent. For example, if young speakers of Spanish are exposed to English with a standard (U.S. Midwest) accent, they will acquire that accent; if they learn English from speakers whose English has a Spanish accent, they will learn English with that accent.

Some phonemes in both languages develop later even for native speakers (the /th/ in *thin*, for example, for native-English speakers, and the trilled /rr/ in *arroz* for Spanish speakers), so it is to be expected that some second-language speakers will show the same kind of development. Most important, by the age of five or six, simultaneous bilingual speakers show great progress in two languages: They can use and repeat complex sentences; they have mastered 90 percent of the sound systems; and they can apply prepositions correctly, use slang and make jokes, modify their speech if necessary to talk to younger children, and take conversational turns without being seen as interruptive or rude. These are impressive advances in language and well worth any temporary confusion or language delay along the way.

Stages of Second-Language Acquisition Despite the great variance in levels of second-language acquisition (SLA), there are generally accepted stages of development through which all learners progress. These stages include *preproduction*, *early production*, *speech emergence*, and *intermediate fluency*. In preproduction—also called the silent period—the learner is absorbing the sounds and rhythms of the new language, becoming attuned to the flow of the speech stream, and beginning to isolate specific words. In this stage, the learner relies on contextual clues to understand key words and generally communicates nonverbally. For the most part, learners in the silent period feel anxious when expected to produce speech.

Once a learner feels more confident, words and phrases are attempted—the early production stage. Responses can consist of single words (“yes,” “no,” “OK,” “come”) or two- or three-word combinations (“where book,” “don’t go,” “teacher help”). Students can sometimes recite simple poems and sing songs at this point. In the third stage, speech emergence, learners respond more freely. Utterances become longer and more complex, but as utterances begin to resemble sentences, syntax errors are more noticeable than in the earlier stage (“Where you going?” “The boy running”). Table 3.1 provides sample proficiency descriptors by SLA level.

After further progress, learners reach intermediate fluency, in which they begin to initiate and sustain conversations while often being able to recognize and correct their own errors. (“Advanced” proficiency for English learners simply means that the student has passed through the beginning stages. This does not correspond to the label of “Advanced” on the proficiency guidelines of the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages, which indicates a near-nativelike fluency and depth of knowledge.) Although it is tempting for teachers to believe that English learners in the advanced state of SLA are approaching near-native proficiency, they are considered fluent English learners (FEL)—those in need of even greater help as they approach learning in the presence of native-English speakers.

First- and Second-Language Acquisition: Commonalities

Language acquisition is furthered when the learner is immersed in a stimulating environment. Language knowledge builds on prior knowledge of concepts and is vocabulary intensive. The brain operates as a pattern-seeking processor with a high motivation to understand communication it deems important. Accompanying verbal language is a rich and informative system of nonverbal communication, supplying and interpreting the underlying emotions and gestural components. All language learning is time consuming, with an accumulation of skill that cannot be rushed.

A second language is built on the foundation of the first language; this is the only way the learner can make sense of the world. This development is cultural as well as linguistic. Therefore, supporting the learner’s meaning-making efforts furthers English acquisition. Providing linguistic and cultural support for the learner is a major theme of this book.

Separate or Common Underlying Proficiency Some critics of bilingual education claim that educating children in the primary language reduces their opportunity to acquire English. This argument assumes that proficiency in English is separate from proficiency in a primary language and that content and skills learned through the primary language do not transfer to English—a notion that Cummins (1981) has termed *separate underlying proficiency* (SUP). In contrast, Cummins asserted that cognition and language, once developed in the primary language, form a basis for subsequent learning in any language. This position assumes a *common underlying proficiency* (CUP), the belief that a second language and the primary language have a shared foundation in knowledge about language use, and that competence in the primary language provides the basis for competence in the second language.

TABLE 3.1 Second-Language-Acquisition Levels and Associated Proficiency Descriptors

Level		Proficiency Descriptors
Beginning	Listening/Speaking	May be able to recognize and speak a few isolated words and phrases
	Reading	May be able to recognize a few isolated words
	Writing	May be able to write a few isolated words
Early Intermediate	Listening/Speaking	Can produce words or phrases; can separate spoken sounds into words and respond to questions using simple vocabulary
	Reading	Can recognize words and phrases in print and match words to pictures
	Writing	Can respond to a writing prompt with a simple sentence
Intermediate	Listening/Speaking	Can produce relevant sentences using increasingly complex vocabulary
	Reading	Can read text with basic comprehension
	Writing	Can respond to a writing prompt with sentences or write a story with a sequence of events
Early Advanced	Listening/Speaking	Can understand instructional delivery and respond relevantly
	Reading	Can read text using skills of inferencing, drawing conclusions, and making predictions
	Writing	Can write with well-formed sentences and paragraphs, communicating ideas with organization
Advanced	Listening/Speaking	Can understand and respond to instructional delivery on increasingly complex topics
	Reading	Can read narrative and expository texts with comprehension requiring a range of thinking skills
	Writing	Writing is fluent and accurate, communicating ideas with organization, few grammatical errors, and specific vocabulary

For example, children learning to read and write in Korean develop concepts about print and the role of literacy that make learning to read and think in English easier, despite the fact that these languages do not share a similar writing system. The surface differences in the languages are less important than the deeper understandings about the function of reading and its relationship to thought and learning. According to Cummins (1981), students do not have to relearn in a second language the essentials of schooling: how to communicate, how to think critically, and how to read and write.

Age of Acquisition Second-language acquisition is a complex process that occurs over a long period of time, and the optimum age for its inception has been widely debated. Many people believe that children acquire a second language more rapidly than adults, but recent

research counters this notion. Although it is true that the kind of instruction varies greatly according to the age of the learner—how formal the treatment of grammar and rules can be and what kind of communicative activities are appropriate—there is little evidence to indicate that biology closes the door to learning a second language at certain ages (see Singleton & Ryan, 2004, for further discussion of age-related issues in SLA, as well as Box 3.1).

BOX 3.1**What Is the Best Age for Second-Language Acquisition?**

For adults, learning a second language can be a frustrating and difficult experience. In contrast, it seems so easy for children. Is there a best age for learning a second language?

Point: Children Learn Second Languages More Easily Than Adults

Those who argue the *critical period hypothesis* (now called the *sensitive period hypothesis*) believe that a child can learn a second language more rapidly than an adult because the brain has a language-acquisition processor that functions best before puberty (Lenneberg, 1967)—despite the fact that the critical period hypothesis has not been proved.

Evidence from child second-language studies indicates that the language children speak is relatively simple compared with that of adults, with shorter constructions and fewer vocabulary words, and therefore might appear more fluent. Moreover, adults are often unaware that a child's silence indicates lack of understanding, and they overestimate the limits of a child's SLA skills. One area that seems to be a clear advantage for children is phonology: The earlier a person begins to learn a second language, the closer the accent may approach that of a native speaker (Oyama, 1976).

Counterpoint: Adults Learn Languages More Skillfully Than Children

Research comparing adults with children has consistently demonstrated that adolescents and adults outperform children in controlled language-learning studies (e.g., Snow & Hoefnagel-Hoehle, 1978). Adults have access to more memory strategies; are, as a rule, more socially comfortable; and have greater experience with language in general. The self-discipline, strategy use, prior knowledge, and metalinguistic ability of the older learner create a distinct advantage for the adult over the child in language acquisition.

Marinova-Todd, Marshall, and Snow (2000) analyzed misconceptions about age and second-language learning and reached the following conclusions: "Older learners have the potential to learn second languages to a very high level and introducing foreign languages to very young learners cannot be justified on grounds of biological readiness to learn languages" (p. 10). "Age does influence language learning, but primarily because it is associated with social, psychological, educational, and other factors that can affect L2 proficiency, not because of any critical period that limits the possibility of language learning by adults" (p. 28).

Theories of Second-Language Acquisition

Various theories and methods of second-language teaching have been used throughout recorded history, each based on an underlying rationale or set of beliefs about how language is best learned. These range in type from traditional to innovative. This chapter provides a historical context, with a focus on contemporary theories and models that underlie current instructional models.

TABLE 3.2 What Legacies Remain of Former Methods of Second-Language Teaching

Method of Instruction	Underlying Theory	Legacy in Current Beliefs about Second-Language Teaching
Grammar translation	Second language is learned by translating second-language structures into first language, emphasizing grammar and vocabulary.	Focus on vocabulary memorization
Structural linguistics and contrastive analysis	Second language is learned by classifying similar languages into groups and comparing the structures of two languages with each other to note similarities and differences.	Language comparison as a teaching methodology
Behaviorism as audiolingualism	Second language is learned by habit formation, especially by training in correct pronunciation.	Used to justify repetitious, structured practice in which learners are drilled on correct pronunciation
Behaviorism as direct teaching and mastery learning	Second language is learned by dividing what is to be learned into small units and using rote repetition, with much drill and practice.	Used to justify scripted lessons with controlled vocabulary and extensive testing

Former Theories That Still Influence Current Practice

Latin was the model for grammar throughout the Middle Ages, even though it was not an appropriate model for most European languages, much less for languages outside the Western world. Some current grammar-centered teaching practices still emphasize learning how to form grammatically correct sentences and memorizing vocabulary even before motivating the desire to communicate. Table 3.2 presents an overview of historical methods of second-language acquisition, the underlying theoretical premises of these methods, and their legacy of beliefs and justification for current teaching practices.

Grammar Translation In many parts of the world, second-language teaching requires teachers to translate and drill on vocabulary, verb tenses, and parts of speech. Students learn in a carefully controlled curriculum and are rewarded for memorization. However, students have little choice in what they learn, little contact with actual speakers of the language they are acquiring, almost no actual use of the language in a social context, and little stimulation of curiosity, playfulness, and exploration—aspects of learning that are intrinsic to the nature of the mind. In contrast, best practices in contemporary second-language teaching—especially in the elementary school—feature extensive social interaction and active language use (Takahashi, Austin, & Morimoto, 2000).

Focus on Structure The descriptive and structural linguistics of the nineteenth century led to the comparison of languages for the purpose of teaching. *Contrastive analysis* is the theory that comparing the first and second languages can predict what might be easy or difficult for the learner. However, its central premise—that the more similar two languages are, the more easily a speaker of the first will learn the second—is impossible to prove, and contrastive

linguistics has been largely an ineffectual way to teach a second language except in small areas such as cognates.

Behaviorist Theories of Second-Language Acquisition When behaviorism dominated learning theory, it greatly influenced second-language teaching. Principles of repetition and reward led to classroom methodologies of drill and practice. Three aspects of behaviorism are still used in contemporary language teaching: audiolingualism, direct teaching/mastery learning, and total physical response.

The audiolingual method of language learning is behavioral, emphasizing oral practice such as pattern drills of specific grammatical forms (“It’s cold today, *isn’t it?*”). The goal for the learner is to learn new habits of speech in the second language, including correct pronunciation, through repetitious training directed and controlled by the teacher. Errors are corrected immediately to discourage “bad” habit formation. Reading and writing are often delayed until the student has an adequate oral base. The strength of the audiolingual method is its repetitious drill to achieve correct pronunciation. Drawbacks include limited exposure to the target culture and failure to emphasize self-motivated language acquisition.

Direct teaching and mastery learning are also forms of behaviorist instruction, and their use in U.S. classrooms of English learners through reading programs such as Open Court and Direct Instruction demonstrates that behaviorism is still widely practiced. Direct teaching incorporates explicit instructional objectives for students and promotes the learning of facts in sequenced steps. The instructor uses carefully scripted lessons divided into small units with specific objectives that move at a lockstep pace. In mastery learning, students are regularly tested over the material that is covered and receive immediate remediation if performance lags.

An advantage of direct teaching and mastery learning is the focus on the subskills of language, including word recognition and low-level comprehension skills. The weakest part of direct teaching is that students are seldom asked to set their own goals in learning or pursue their own interests, and they have little time to explore language creatively.

In total physical response (TPR), students respond to an oral command that is simultaneously being modeled. For example, the teacher says “Stand” while standing up and “Sit” while sitting down, and students follow along. The instructor repeats the commands followed by the appropriate action until students perform without hesitation, and then begins to delay his or her own action to allow students the opportunity to respond and thus demonstrate understanding. Eventually, the students, first as a whole group and then as individuals, act on the instructor’s voice command alone. The number of commands is gradually increased. Students continue to respond in a nonverbal manner until they feel comfortable issuing their own commands. This concrete, “listen-and-do” methodology recommended by Asher (1982) is associated with early stages of second-language learning in a low-anxiety environment.

Transformational Grammar Chomsky postulated that human beings, once exposed to the language(s) of their environment, use their innate ability to understand and produce sentences they have never before heard, because the mind has the capacity to internalize and construct language rules. The rules help native speakers distinguish whether a group of words forms a sentence in their language. Chomsky and other so-called “nativists” upheld the idea that children do not need to be taught language:

Children hear people speaking as they do naturally, in bits of sentences, with hesitations, breaks, and repetitions . . . [yet] by and by large they grow up competent speakers of the language(s) they hear . . . they (unconsciously) apply certain rules and representations in order to become users of a specific language. (Gillen, 2003, p. 83)

The goal of transformational grammar is to understand and describe these internalized rules. However, transformational grammar has not been associated with any particular second-language-acquisition (SLA) teaching method.

Communicative Competence Hymes (1972) introduced the term *communicative competence*, meaning the knowledge that enables language users to “convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts” (Brown, 1987, p. 219). Rather than merely knowing grammatical forms, the competent speaker is one who knows when, where, and how to use language appropriately in different social contexts. This directed attention away from the structural analysis of language toward a more anthropological or cultural approach, emphasizing the role of social relations in language (Halliday, 1975) and a more inclusive realm of language in use, including its psychological, social, and political domains. This has resulted in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), a method that encourages SLA through social interaction.

The Interactionist Model Extending the notion of communicative competence, Long (1980) developed the interactionist model, in which teachers needed to provide many opportunities for English learners to engage in discourse with native speakers of English, in a variety of situations. By holding conversations, nonnative speakers commonly acquire rich input. Through their own speech output, they affect both the quantity and the quality of the language they receive. The more learners talk, the more other people will talk to them, providing them opportunities to initiate and expand topics and try out new expressions. Those who espouse the interactionist model oppose ELD programs that segregate English learners without incorporating specific opportunities for interaction between native and nonnative speakers.

Krashen’s Monitor Model Five distinct hypotheses make up Krashen’s (1981, 1982) monitor model. In the *acquisition-learning hypothesis*, Krashen (1985) distinguishes second-language *acquisition* from *learning*. Learning is “knowing about” a language (formal knowledge about the rules of a language). Acquisition, on the other hand, is an unconscious process that occurs when language is used for real communication.

Krashen’s *natural order hypothesis* states that there appears to be a predictable order of acquisition of English morphemes for second-language learners, similar to that of first-language learners. The *monitor hypothesis* postulates a mental error-detecting mechanism, the monitor (similar to Chomsky’s “language-acquisition device”), which edits an utterance either before or after attempted communication. The *input hypothesis* claims that language is acquired in an “amazingly simple way—when we understand messages” (Krashen, 1985, p. vii). When working with English learners, teachers need to use variety in modality, including oral, visual, and kinesthetic, to ensure that learners receive comprehensive input.

The *affective filter hypothesis* posits that emotional variables, including anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence, are crucial because they can affect the input that reaches the language-acquisition device. A nonthreatening and encouraging environment promotes learning; it is important to increase the enjoyment of learning, raise self-esteem, and encourage self-awareness as students learn English.

Meaning-Centered Approaches Researchers (Goodman, 1986; Smith, 1983) looking at children learning to read in naturalistic settings noticed that they actively seek meaning. They work to make sense of text, combining text clues with their own prior knowledge to construct meanings. The theory called *whole language* arose from the idea that meaning plays a central role in learning and that language modes (speaking, listening, reading, writing) interact and

are interdependent. Whole language, a philosophy of reading instruction, complemented many findings of studies in first- and second-language acquisition.

Meaning-centered systems of language acquisition (also called *top-down* systems) support the view of language espoused by Halliday (1978)—that language is a complex system for creating meanings through socially shared conventions. The notion of *meaning-making* implies that learners are generating hypotheses from, and actively constructing interpretations about, the input they receive, be it oral or written. Language is social in that it occurs within a community of users who attach agreed-on meaning to their experiences.

Contemporary Theories of Language Development

Starting in the mid-twentieth century, several important theories have shaped current understanding of language acquisition and development. In 1959, Chomsky criticized the prevailing belief that language is learned through constant verbal input shaped by reinforcement. He claimed that language is not learned solely through a process of memorizing and repeating, but that the mind contains an active language processor, the language acquisition device (LAD), that generates rules through the unconscious acquisition of grammar. This led to a cognitive emphasis, focusing on the role of the mind. The emphasis on cognitive strategies is a foundation of the current emphasis on academic proficiency, for example in the Common Core State Standards.

Cummins's Theories of Bilingualism and Cognition Jim Cummins's work (1981, 2010) falls within the cognitive approach to language, with its emphasis on the strengths the learner brings to the task of learning a second language. The cognitive approach to

Language is acquired best when students are actively engaged in interesting, comprehensible activities.



learning is based on the premise that learners already have considerable knowledge of the world. Cummins's research has furthered the belief that being bilingual is a cognitive advantage and that knowledge of the first language provides a firm foundation for SLA. Moreover, Cummins's concept of cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) helps teachers identify and teach the type of language that students need to acquire for academic success.

Cummins is also a vocal advocate of “critical literacy” as an essential component of educational reform to promote achievement for Latino/Latina students. According to Cummins, students who achieve only “functional literacy” often fail to develop a sense of empowerment through acquisition of cultural and critical literacy, and cannot successfully challenge the “status quo” in which their culture and language is relegated to a second-class status. Cummins (2010) also distinguishes between coercive and collaborative relations of power. “Coercive relations of power refer to the exercise of power by a dominant group (or individual) to the detriment of a subordinated group (or individual)” (2010, n.p.).

Cummins (2010) goes on to state,

Collaborative relations of power, on the other hand, operate on the assumption that power is not a fixed pre-determined quantity but rather can be *generated* in interpersonal and intergroup relations, thereby becoming “additive” rather than “subtractive.” In other words, participants in the relationship are *empowered* through their collaboration such that each is more affirmed in her or his identity and has a greater sense of efficacy to effect change in her or his life or social situation. Thus, power is created in the relationship and shared among participants. Collaborative relations of power create *empowerment*; *transformative pedagogy* refers to interactions between educators and students that foster the collaborative relations. (n.p.)

Communicative Language Teaching Social functions of language, such as requesting, agreeing, refusing, telling a story, expressing disappointment, and so forth, are taught in the CLT approach. Even at the beginning level of English, students learn how to meet their needs through communication. At the early intermediate level, students might listen to and repeat conversations; role-play situations involving complaints (“Sorry to bother you, but . . .”) or apologies (“I’m sorry that . . .”); or work to expand their repertoire of common phrases, such as “How’s it going?”; “I hope so”; “I doubt it”; and a hundred other useful expressions (see Spears, 1992).

Task-based learning (TBL) is part of communicative language teaching. Students use real-life language as they perform authentic activities that accomplish the language objectives or content objectives of a lesson; the focus is on meaning, rather than form. Often these activities are in a sequence, called a task chain. For example, students might have as their objective “to use the format of a personal letter.” The task chain is a set of tasks that involve comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language—for example, reading letters, discussing the various parts of the letter, and then producing a letter, perhaps to thank a recent classroom visitor.

Communicative language teaching has also led to greater use of games and communicative activities that lighten the spirit of learning, reduce anxiety, add excitement to a lesson, and make review and practice more fun. Use a search engine to discover a wealth of interactive language-learning games, some adapted for mobile devices.

BEST PRACTICE Enhancing Communicative Competence

In a high school ESL class, Mr. Thurmond demonstrates grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse competence to students by having them role-play a job interview. As students conduct and analyze the interview situation, they identify such aspects as the need for forms of politeness and the inappropriate use of slang. In one such activity, the final winner was the applicant who, having at first been turned down, used strategic competence—she asked to be put on a waiting list and then got the job when the first-choice candidate accepted “a better offer”!

Communication Strategies Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985) found that children used communicative strategies to enhance their second-language competence. These strategies are indirect, in that they usually are not learned in a classroom; children use these as part of their innate second-language-learning repertoire. However, an emphasis on communication in the classroom can encourage the use of these strategies. Table 3.3 presents these in order of their development.

These communication strategies are employed for transmitting an idea when the learner cannot produce precise linguistic forms. Brown (2000) groups communication strategies into five main categories: avoidance (evading sounds, structures, or topics that are beyond current proficiency); prefabricated patterns (memorizing stock phrases to rely on when all else fails); cognitive and personality styles to compensate for unknown language structures; appeals for help; and language switch (falling back on the primary language for help in communication).

This last strategy, often called *code-switching*, has been studied extensively because it permeates a learner’s progression in a second language. Code-switching—the alternating use of

TABLE 3.3 Second-Language Communication Strategies

Strategy	Description
Repetition in short-term memory	Imitating a word or structure used by another
Use of formulaic expressions	Using words or phrases that function as units, such as greetings (“Hi! How are you?”)
Use of verbal attention-getters	Initiating interaction with language (“Hey!” “I think”)
Answering in unison	Responding with others
Talking to self	Engaging in subvocal or internal monologue
Elaboration	Providing information beyond that which is necessary
Anticipatory answers	Answering an anticipated question or completing another’s phrase or statement
Monitoring	Correcting one’s own errors in vocabulary, style, and grammar
Appeal for assistance	Seeking help from another
Request for clarification	Asking the speaker to explain or repeat

Source: Chesterfield & Chesterfield (1985).

two languages on the word, phrase, clause, or sentence level—is used by many bilingual speakers for a variety of purposes, not just as a strategy to help when expressions in the second language are lacking.

Baker (1993) lists ten purposes for code-switching: (1) to emphasize a point, (2) because a word is unknown in one of the languages, (3) for ease and efficiency of expression, (4) as a repetition to clarify, (5) to express group identity and status or to be accepted by a group, (6) to quote someone, (7) to interject in a conversation, (8) to exclude someone, (9) to cross social or ethnic boundaries, and (10) to ease tension in a conversation. Code-switching thus plays a key role in bilingual communicative competence.

Translanguaging Use of the term “code-switching” has been deemphasized by some researchers in favor of the term “translanguaging,” which describes the teacher’s and students’ use of a more flexible language repertoire in the classroom. Replacing the term “code-switching” with “translanguaging” has helped to defuse antagonism on some bilingual educators’ part to “code-switching,” which is sometimes associated with the accusation that educators are encouraging students to use their bilingual skills in a manner that results in a sloppy or incomplete proficiency in one or both languages. Translanguaging as a pedagogy is discussed further in Chapter 6.

Although language purists look down on language mixing, a more fruitful approach is letting children learn in whatever manner they feel most comfortable so that anxiety about language will not interfere with concept acquisition. In fact, a teacher who learns and uses words and expressions in the students’ home language is able to express solidarity and share personal feelings when appropriate.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Matilde’s Code-Switching

Matilde’s use of two languages makes a fascinating study in code-switching. She grew up in a Puerto Rican family in New York and has always lived in communities in which both English and Spanish are used, separately and together. Because all her schooling was in English, Matilde considers that to be her stronger language, but her Spanish is totally fluent, if not always correct according to “standard” Spanish. Her code switches are fluent, grammatical, and usually motivated by something in the situational or linguistic context. It may be the person she is talking to, the language used by that person, the thing she is talking about, the desire to ensure that everybody understands, or a borrowed word that triggers a switch. For example, a change from talking to the entire class to talking to a single student can cause a switch. (Irujo, 1998, p. 47)

Sociocultural Views of Second-Language Acquisition Schools, as institutions of learning and socialization, represent the larger culture. Culture, though largely invisible, influences instruction, policy, and learning in schools. Knowledge of the deeper elements of culture—beyond superficial aspects such as food, clothing, holidays, and celebrations—can give teachers a cross-cultural perspective that allows them to educate students to the greatest extent possible.

Anthropologists have joined with educators to view closely the culture of schooling and the language learning that takes place therein. Intensive studies of Hawai’ian and Native American cultural practices of learning helped Mehan (1981), Tharp (1989), and other educational

researchers (Philips, 1972; Phillips, 1978) recommend ways in which schools could institute culturally compatible practices (see Chapter 10).

Learning is not a separate and independent activity of individuals but an integral part of participation in a community (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Children return to dynamic and interactive communities after a day at school. Teachers must come to know and respect what the community offers students and encourage knowledge to travel a two-way path as it circulates from school to home and back to school. Thus, learning is both an individual and communal activity.

BEST PRACTICE Encouraging Interaction between Native- and Nonnative-English Speakers

- Students can interview others briefly on topics such as “My favorite sport” or “My favorite tool.” The responses from the interviews can be tallied and form the basis for subsequent class discussion.
- English learners can interact with native-English speakers during school hours through cross-age or peer interactions.

Constructivist Views of Learning Constructivism is an offshoot of the cognitivist tradition in which complex, challenging learning environments help students take responsibility for constructing their own knowledge. As students deal with complex situations, the teacher provides support. Thus, students and teachers share responsibility for the knowledge construction process, collaborating on the goals of instruction and the planning needed for learning to take place.

Key elements of constructivist learning are the encouragement of student autonomy and initiative, the expectation that student responses will drive lesson content and instructional strategies, use of learning experiences that provoke discussion, a focus on students’ concept understanding rather than teachers’ concept explanation, and an emphasis on critical thinking and student dialogue. Constructivist methods make minimal use of rote memorization and instead focus on problem solving. Students discuss, ask questions, give explanations to one another, present ideas, and solve problems together.

Constructivist learning in the elementary years helps students maintain their curiosity and zest for learning. Typical constructivist environments are found in children’s museums, rich worlds in which children can be exposed to many different stimuli. At the middle and high school levels, students use research resources featuring various types of information representation. Conducting research need not be a solitary occupation; project-based learning, for example, is a constructivist technique in which teams of students pool resources and expertise in the service of large undertakings.

BEST PRACTICE Promoting Students’ Knowledge Construction

- Instructional objectives are compelling and comprehensible.
- Complex problems require teachers to become learners as well as students.
- Students are exposed to a variety of representational formats for knowledge (text, visual, oral, figurative, etc.).
- Working in teams, students learn conflict resolution skills as well as receptive and productive language skills.

Social Constructionist Views of Language Learning The Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky emphasized the role of social interaction in the development of language and thought: language joins with thought to create meaning (Wink & Putney, 2002). Interaction occurs in a cultural, historical, and institutional context that shapes the availability and quality of the tools and signs that mediate higher mental functions. Vygotsky recognized that all teaching and learning takes place within the context of the memories, experiences, and cultural habits found within families.

A social-constructivist view of language acquisition takes into account the role that language plays in social interaction. As Gillen stated,

Children make sense of symbolic practices . . . through their presence in communities. People create and interpret meanings together . . . Children learn how to dance or how to draw, partly through watching others, partly through responses that others make to their own efforts, and partly through the special individually motivated capabilities they bring to the activity in question. (2003, p. 13)

According to Vygotsky (1981), teaching must take into consideration the student's *zone of proximal development*, defined as “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development . . . under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (p. 86). Social interaction between adults and students operates within this zone. Mediation of learning—assisting students’ performance—requires teachers to adapt to the level of the student, provide guidance when needed, and help students to work with one another and the teacher to co-construct meaning.

BEST PRACTICE Using Social Interaction to Learn English

The social uses of language are advanced when students engage in communicative pair or group tasks. Students benefit from communication with one another, members of the school community, and the community at large, as in the following examples:

- Practice reader’s theater with other students
- Develop interview questions for a community survey
- Plan an exhibition of art or written work to which the public will be invited.

Semiotics, Multimedia-Based Approaches, and New Literacies Not all SLA depends on verbal language. Semiotics is a discipline that studies the ways in which humans use signs, symbols, icons, and indexes to create meaning. Signs—and the meanings they carry—vary across cultures and languages, adding richness to the study of second language that words alone seldom express fully. Semiotics provides a perspective for examining human development through the interplay of multiple meaning systems.

Multimedia use has become increasingly important as sophisticated computer art, animation, and graphics programs available through the Internet have opened up a language of two-dimensional shape and color that supplements, if not replaces, text as a source of information and experience for many young people. Some literacy experts have coined the term “new literacies”—referring to the multiple modalities with which students can interact in meaningful ways through the search engines, mobile devices, YouTube, and other receptive and expressive platforms. This rich field of literacy research can be explored by using a search engine to access the term.

BEST PRACTICE**Using Multiple Modalities to Acquire a Second Language**

- Students can view themselves, other students, teachers, the community, and culturally authentic materials (phone books, voicemail messages, advertising brochures, music videos, etc.) to examine ways that meaning is communicated using both verbal and nonverbal messages.
- Students can engage in a variety of purposeful cross-media activities—produce music, create collages, and write poems, journal entries, or advertising slogans—to display their identities, values, or ideas.
- Students at all levels of language proficiency can use films or video clips in class to “people-watch” using semiotics to read nonverbal messages sent by dress styles, posture, demeanor, and so forth as a way to increase their understanding of semiotic messages.

Contributions of Research about the Brain A basic question for SLA is “What is the role of the brain in learning language?” Neurolinguists attempt to explain the connection between language function and neuroanatomy and to identify, if possible, the areas of the brain responsible for language functioning. Recent studies have looked at the role of emotions and visual and gestural processing in SLA, tracing the brain processing of not only verbal language but also nonverbal input such as gestures, facial expressions, and intonation.

Educators have developed learning methods that take into consideration brain processing. According to their research, learning is the brain’s primary function. Many parts of the brain process reality simultaneously, facilitating SLA. For further information about brain-based learning, see Sousa’s *How the Brain Learns* (Sousa, 2006), Haley’s *Brain-Compatible Differentiated Instruction for English Language Learners* (Haley, 2010); and Tate’s “Worksheets Don’t Grow Dendrites: 20 Instructional Strategies That Engage the Brain” (Tate, 2013).

BEST PRACTICE**Using Principles of Brain-Based Learning in Oral Presentations****Before a Presentation**

- Students can lower anxiety by taking a few deep breaths, visualizing success, and repeating positive self-talk phrases (brain-based principle: Learning engages the entire physiology).
- Students can review the structure of the information, especially how the parts of the presentation fit together (brain-based principle: The brain processes parts and wholes simultaneously).

During the Presentation

- The speaker concentrates on the task while staying tuned to the needs of the audience (brain-based principle: Learning involves both focused attention and peripheral perception).
- Tenseness that is redefined as “eustress” (“good stress”) supplies energy for learning rather than inhibits performance (brain-based principle: Learning is enhanced by challenge and inhibited by threat).

After the Presentation

- Students can evaluate their accomplishments, ask for feedback and tune in to the reactions of others, identify problem areas, and make a plan for improvement (brain-based principle: Learning occurs best when facts and skills are embedded in natural, spatial memory—including the memory of positive performance).

Factors That Influence Second-Language Acquisition

Learners do not acquire language in a vacuum; rather, they learn it by interacting with others. Psychological and sociocultural factors play important roles in a learner's acquisition and use of a second language (see Figure 3.1). Each individual's character traits enable specific types of functioning, while membership in various groups leads a person—largely unconsciously—to adopt rules for interaction and take on roles appropriate for effective functioning in those

FIGURE 3.1 English Learner Profile

Psychological Factors: Learner's Background

Learner's name _____ Age _____ Gender (M / F) _____
 Grade _____ L1 proficiency _____
 Type of bilingualism _____
 Previous L2 experience _____
 Assessed L2 level: Reading ____ Writing ____ Listening ____ Speaking ____
 Academic success _____
 Likes/dislikes _____

Social-Emotional Psychological Factors

Self-esteem _____
 Motivation _____
 Anxiety level _____
 Attitudes toward L1/L2 _____
 Attitudes toward the teacher and the class _____

Cognitive Psychological Factors

Stage of L2 acquisition _____
 Cognitive style/learning style _____
 Learning strategies _____

Sociocultural Factors

Family acculturation and use of L1 and L2 _____
 Family values _____
 Institutional support for L1 _____
 Sociocultural support for L1 in the classroom environment _____

groups. Teachers who are aware of these individual (psychological) and group (sociocultural) factors are able to adapt instruction to meet individual needs so that each learner can achieve academic success. Figure 3.1 offers an outline that can help teachers organize what they know about a given learner.

Psychological factors are traits specific to individuals that enable them to acquire a second language. Learners use their personalities to process the language they hear and to create meaningful responses. Psychological factors can be divided into three categories: *background*, *social–emotional* aspects, and *cognitive* skills. A learner's age, prior language experience, and prior schooling affect current school performance. Learning creates a sense of mastery of the language, producing an affective–emotional response: enjoyment, pride, and competence. The work of mastering a second language can be considered cognitive. Teachers can help students be aware of those psychological factors that further their language learning and can work with students to ensure that these factors promote rather than impede their learning.

Psychological Factors: The Learner's Background

Naming Practices and Forms of Address A learner's name represents the individual as well as a family connection. People feel validated if their names are treated with respect. Teachers who care make an effort to pronounce students' names accurately. Taking extra time to talk privately with a student is preferable to practicing an unfamiliar name in public, which may be embarrassing for the student.

Naming practices differ across cultures. In the United States, people use a first (or given), middle, and last (or family) name. Around the world, naming order can vary. In Taiwan, for example, the family name goes first, followed by given names. In Vietnam, names are also ordered as family name, middle name, and given name. Puerto Ricans, as well as other Hispanics, generally use three names: a given name, followed by the father's surname and then the mother's surname. If one last name must be used, it is generally the father's. Thus, Esther Reyes Mimosa can be addressed as Esther Reyes. If the first name is composed of two given names (Hector Luis), both are used.

In many cultures, adults are referred to by function rather than name. In Hmong, *xib fwb* means “teacher,” and Hmong children may use the English term *teacher* in the classroom rather than a title plus surname, as in “Mrs. Jasko.” Middle-class European-American teachers may consider this to be rude rather than understanding it as a culturally based practice.

BEST PRACTICE Students' Names

- Understand the use and order of names and also pronounce them correctly.
- Work with the student privately to practice his or her name.
- Don't change a student's name, apply a nickname, or use an “English” version of a student's name (even at the student's request) without first checking with a member of the student's family.

Age Second-language acquisition is a complex process that occurs over a long period of time, and the optimum age for its inception has been widely debated. The learner's age affects the sophistication of language the student displays, which of course is influenced by the

amount of time the learner has spent being schooled in the first and second language. Age can affect the acquisition of phonemes: the initial sound of “th” in English, both voiced and unvoiced, is often the last phoneme to be acquired by native speakers of English, as is the phoneme /r/ (and the /rr/ in Spanish is often last to be acquired by native-Spanish speakers). Children in the same class may be younger than their peers; a child whose birthday is just after the cut-off date for grade enrollment may be a full year behind the child whose birthday is just before the cut-off date, creating a year’s gap in maturity. Moreover, a child raised with more than two languages may experience some language delay.

First-Language Proficiency Research has shown that proficiency in the first language helps students to achieve in school. To learn about a student’s first-language strengths, a teacher, primary-language-speaking aide, or parent might observe a student working or playing and take notes on the child’s primary-language behavior. Knowledge about the student’s linguistic and academic abilities may assist the teacher in first- or second-language academic content instruction.

Some contemporary language placement tests are built around five proficiency levels: beginning, early intermediate, intermediate, early advanced, and advanced, along the four dimensions of language (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). If a proficiency test is given in both the L1 and L2, proficiency levels across the four language dimensions may differ greatly. Knowing the student’s L1 proficiency is not an exact predictor of L2 proficiency.

Previous L2 Experience English learners in the same grade may have had vastly different prior exposure to English, ranging from none to previous submersion in English—including students with no prior schooling at all. Moreover, no two students have been exposed to exactly the same input of English outside of class. Therefore, students’ prior exposure to English and achievement of proficiency are often highly varied. Teachers may need to ascertain what degree of L2 instruction students have previously attained to design English-language instruction at the appropriate level.

Students who have not had a positive experience when first learning English may have “shut down” and become unwilling to speak. It may take time for a more positive approach to L2 instruction—combined with a supportive attitude toward L1 maintenance—to produce results.

BEST PRACTICE Equalizing Prior L2 Experience

- If students in the same class have drastically different prior experience in L2, it may be necessary to group students who are at about the same level of English skills (homogeneous grouping) for targeted ELD instruction.
- Heterogeneous groups—each group containing students who are at different levels of English proficiency—can be used for cross-level language stimulation.
- For students who seem reluctant to speak English, small-group language games within homogeneous groups may lower anxiety and increase fluency.

Assessed L2 Level An important part of knowledge about learners that teachers amass as a foundation for instruction is each student’s assessed level of proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English. This can be obtained during the process of assessment for placement. Various states have their own designated placement instrument (see each state’s

Department of Education website). No matter the source of information, the student's L2 level is the beginning point of instruction in English.

Many states have state-mandated texts that indicate either proficiency level or placement, or both. For example, the main purpose of the California English Language Development Test (CELDT) is to assess English learners at the K–12 level to determine their levels of English proficiency, while also annually assessing their progress toward becoming fluently English proficient. Most proficiency tests cover four skill areas: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Often students in kindergarten and grade 1 are assessed only in listening and speaking, whereas students in grades 2 through 12 are assessed in all four areas.

Following the guidelines of the Common Core State Standards, an educational initiative directed by the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) that spells out grade by grade what K–12 students should know in English language arts (ELA) and mathematics, students should progress in their ability to read and understand complex texts, accompanied by critical analysis in writing that includes logical reasoning and evidence-based claims. Speaking and listening standards encourage students to participate in academic discussion in whole-class and small-group settings. Common Core also includes English-language-development (ELD) standards, designed to educate English learners to the point at which they can transfer to the ELA standards. Although not all states have embraced this widespread education reform, clearly school success requires a level of English proficiency rich with academic vocabulary and capable of supporting complex reading assignments and participation in classroom discourse.

A state-adopted proficiency test that is aligned with a state's ELD standards can be used guide to match specific language objectives in the lesson plan with the assessed linguistic needs of the student. If the ELD standards are closely aligned with the state's ELA standards, which in turn are aligned with Common Core standards, English learners when redesignated (a term meaning they are no longer considered English learners) can easily transition from ELD to ELA standards.

BEST PRACTICE Assessing L2 Proficiency Levels

- Be aware that a student's listening and speaking proficiency may surpass that for reading and writing, or vice versa.
- Assess each language skill independently.
- Use a measure such as the Student Oral Language Observation Matrix (SOLOM) to assess students' oral proficiency.
- Use *The English–Español Reading Inventory for the Classroom* (Flynt & Cooter, 1999) to provide a quick assessment of reading levels in the two languages.

Regardless of the way one labels the stages of second-language acquisition, it is now recognized that, in natural situations, learners progress through predictable stages, and learners advance through them at their own pace. Undue pressure to move through the stages rapidly only frustrates learners and retards language learning.

Academic Success A valid predictor of school success is prior academic success. By reading cumulative academic records, a teacher should get a sense of students' strengths and weaknesses. This can be augmented by observations of students during academic activities, as well as interviews with family members and former teachers. It is important for the current teacher to assemble as complete a record of students' prior schooling as possible to best inform instructional decisions.

BEST PRACTICE Matching Instruction to Students' L2 Levels

Ideally, classroom activities match the students' second-language acquisition levels.

Beginning Level

- Provide concrete activities featuring input that is augmented by pictures, real objects, carefully modified teacher speech, and frequent repetition of new vocabulary.

Early Intermediate and Intermediate Levels

- Ask questions that produce single words and brief phrases.
- Provide opportunities for students to use their primary language as they acquire the second language.

Early Advanced Level

- Engage students in opportunities to speak with greater complexity, read several pages of text even though they have limited comprehension, and write paragraphs.
- Offer a curriculum that supports and explicitly teaches learning strategies.

Likes/Dislikes Inquiring about students' favorite academic subjects, television shows, and extracurricular activities is one way of bridging adult–child, teacher–student, or intercultural gaps. Getting-to-know-you activities can be based on the following questions: Who/what is your favorite [native-language/culture] singer? Actor? Video game? Outdoor game? Storybook? Holiday? What do you like about it? Students can write about favorite subjects, and teachers can then use these culturally familiar ideas in classroom math story problems and other content. This conversation may need to occur using the home language.

Psychological Factors: Social–Emotional

The affective domain, the emotional side of human behavior, is the means through which individuals respond to their environment with feeling. Some affective factors pertain specifically to individuals' feelings about themselves, whereas other factors pertain to their ability to interact with others. This emotional dimension, through such affective factors as self-esteem, motivation, anxiety, and learner attitudes, helps determine how language acquisition and communication take place.

Self-Esteem Many teachers intuitively recognize that self-esteem issues play important roles in their classrooms, and they encourage students to feel proud of their successes and abilities. Efforts to empower students with positive images of self, family, and culture may facilitate language learning. Teachers should also strive to ensure that learners feel good about specific aspects of their language learning (e.g., speaking, writing) or about their success with particular tasks.

Self-esteem is particularly at risk when an individual is learning a second language, because so much identity and pride are associated with language competence. Schools that honor the primary languages and cultures of students and help students to develop additive bilingualism foster strong identities, whereas schools in which students face disrespect and discrimination hinder healthy social and emotional development (Cummins, 2010).



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Building Self-Esteem

Anita Álvarez was a Spanish-speaking first-grade student at the beginning stages of English-language acquisition. She was shy and retiring, and Mrs. Figueroa noticed that she seldom took advantage of opportunities to chat with her peers. Anita seemed to have good sensorimotor abilities and to be particularly adept at building three-dimensional models following printed diagrams. When Mrs. Figueroa observed that Mary, another student in the class, had a lot of difficulty in constructing objects, she teamed Mary with Anita, and, with Anita's help, Mary completed her project successfully.

Noting this success, Mrs. Figueroa “assigned competence” to Anita by publicly praising her to the class and referring students to her for help. This boosted Anita's feelings of worth—her “task” self-esteem—and the effects transferred to academic areas. Mrs. Figueroa was pleased to see that, subsequently, Anita talked more with other students and seemed to acquire English at a faster rate.

Many classroom activities can be used to enhance students' self-esteem, such as Press Release, which asks students to write a news story about an incident in which they achieved a victory or reached a goal. A second activity, Age Power, asks students to think positively about their age and answer the question, “What do you like about being your present age?” (Moskowitz, 1978).

In the Name Game, students introduce themselves by first name, adding a word that describes how they are feeling that day, a word that begins with the same letter as the first name (the teacher may provide English learners with an alphabetized list of adjectives). Each subsequent person repeats what the others have said in sequence. Another activity, Name Interviews, lets students work in pairs on a teacher-provided questionnaire with questions such as “What do you like about your name? Who named you? Were you named for someone? Are there members of your family who have the same name?” and more (Siccone, 1995).

BEST PRACTICE Fostering Self-Esteem in the Classroom

If classroom teachers can foster students' self-esteem, students will . . .

- Feel free to express their minds, with respect, and without any attack in response
- Expect the best from others, but also accept imperfections
- Contribute freely to ideas and feel valued in small teams and in class
- Show positive attitudes to others' different ideas, even when they disagree
- Apologize whenever offense is taken by any member of the group
- Shake off personal offense if they [feel insulted].

Source: Adapted from Weber, 2005, p. 16

A concept related to self-esteem is *inhibition*, a term that suggests defensiveness against new experiences and feelings. Emphasizing fluency over accuracy in the first stages of language learning may help students feel less inhibited.

The ability to take risks, to “gamble,” may facilitate second-language acquisition. Educators believe that those who are willing to guess at meaning when it is not clear and to be

relatively unconcerned about making errors will progress in language skills more rapidly than their more inhibited colleagues. As Brown (2000) pointed out, however, students who make random guesses and blurt out meaningless phrases have not been as successful. It appears that moderate risk-takers stand the best chance at language development.

Motivation “The impulse, emotion, or desire that causes one to act in a certain way” is one way to define motivation, which can be affected by various individual, sociocultural, and instructional factors. Gardner and Lambert (1972) postulated two types of motivation in learning a second language: *instrumental*, the need to acquire a language for a specific purpose such as reading technical material or getting a job, and *integrative*, the desire to become a member of the culture of the second-language group. Generally, most situations involve a mixture of both types.

BEST PRACTICE Motivating Students

- Give pep talks to remind students that anything worth doing may seem difficult at first.
- Provide students with a list of encouraging phrases to repeat to themselves as self-talk.
- Ensure that each classroom group contains some academic strivers.

Anxiety Level Anxiety when learning a second language can be seen as similar to general feelings of tension that students experience in the classroom. Almost everyone feels some anxiety when learning a new language—that is, feelings of self-consciousness, desire to be perfect when speaking, and fear of making mistakes. Using a foreign language can threaten a person’s sense of self because speakers know they cannot represent themselves fully in a new language or understand others readily (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1991).

Because anxiety can cause learners to feel defensive and block effective learning, language educators strive to make the classroom a place of warmth and friendliness, where risk-taking is rewarded and encouraged and where peer work, small-group activity, games, and simulations are featured. In such contexts, student-to-student communication is increased. Classroom techniques can teach students to confront anxiety directly.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Discussing Anxiety

In a series of lessons, Mr. Green has students write a letter to an imaginary advice columnist, relating a particular difficulty they have in language learning and asking for advice. Working in groups, the students read and discuss the letters, offer advice, and return the letters to their originators for follow-up discussion.

In a second exercise, students collect mistakes over a number of class periods and, in groups, assess the errors. They then rate the errors on a scale of 1 to 3 for such qualities as amusement, originality, and intelligibility, and they tally points to reward the “winning” mistake. Again, class discussion follows. By working together and performing interviews in pairs, students begin to feel more comfortable because they have the opportunity to get to know a classmate and to work with others.

BEST PRACTICE Reducing Excessive Student Anxiety

- Monitor activities to ensure that students are receiving no undue pressure.
- Use competitive tasks in which students have a reasonable chance to succeed.
- Avoid having anxious students perform in front of large groups.
- When using a novel format or starting a new type of task, provide students with examples or models of how the task is done.
- Occasionally make available take-home tests to lower unnecessary time pressures for performance.
- Teach test-taking skills explicitly and provide study guides to help students who may need extra academic preparation.
- To increase energy levels in class, give students a brief chance to be physically active by introducing stimuli that whet their curiosity or that surprise them.

Source: Adapted from Woolfolk, 2003, p. 367

Attitudes of the Learner Attitudes play a critical role in learning English. Attitudes toward self, toward language (one's own and English), toward English-speaking people (particularly peers), and toward the teacher and the classroom environment affect students. One's attitude toward the self involves cognition about one's ability in general, the ability to learn language, and self-esteem and its related emotions. These cognitions and feelings are seldom explicit and may be slow to change.

Attitudes toward language and those who speak it are largely a product of experience and the influence of people in the immediate environment, such as peers and parents. Negative reactions are often the result of unfavorable stereotypes or the experience of discrimination or racism. If English learners are made to feel inferior because of accent or language status, they may have a defensive reaction against English and English speakers. Students may also experience ambivalent feelings about their primary language. This can cause problems within the family and create a backlash against English or English speakers.

Attitudes toward the teacher and the classroom environment play an important role in school success in general and English acquisition in particular. Families may promote positive attitudes toward school, thus influencing their children's success. In contrast, parents who have experienced discrimination and had negative experiences at school may subconsciously mirror these same attitudes, adding to their children's ambivalent attitudes toward education. Some theorists have postulated that students' refusal to learn what schools teach can be seen as a form of political resistance, which can include misbehavior, vandalism, and poor relationships with teachers (Nieto & Bode, 2011).

Teachers can do much to model positive attitudes toward the students' primary language. However, a teacher–family conference may be advisable if a student continues to show poor attitudes toward the first or second language or the school. Chapter 10 offers strategies for involving the family in schooling.

Psychological Factors: Cognitive

The cognitive perspective helps educators understand language learners as people who are active processors of information. Language is used in school to create meaning from print, to encode ideas into print, to analyze and compare information, and to respond to classroom

discussion. All of these activities involve cognitive factors. Students learn in many different ways using a variety of strategies, and respond to learning activities that are presented in a variety of modalities.

Learning Strategies Aside from general language-acquisition processes that all learners use, learners adopt individual strategies to help them in the acquisition process. Learning strategies include the techniques a person uses to think and to act to complete a task. Chamot (2009) has incorporated specific instruction in learning strategies in the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA). In CALLA, learning strategies are organized into three major types: metacognitive, cognitive, and social-affective. (See Chapter 5 for further discussion.)

Sociocultural and Political Factors That Influence Instruction

Language learning occurs within social and cultural contexts. Proficiency in a second language also means becoming a member of the community that uses this language to interact, learn, conduct business, and love and hate, among other social activities. Acting appropriately and understanding cultural norms is an important part of the sense of mastery and enjoyment of a language. Learners adapt patterns of behavior in a new language and culture from their home culture as they learn a new language. These patterns of behavior can be helpful but also limiting.

Culture includes the ideas, customs, skills, arts, and tools that characterize a given group of people in a given period of time (Brown, 2000). (See Chapters 9 and 10 for further discussion on culture.) An individual's original culture operates as a lens that allows some information to make sense and other information to remain unperceived. When two cultures come into contact, misunderstandings can result because members of these cultures have different perceptions, behaviors, customs, and ideas. Thus, sociocultural factors—how people interact with one another on a daily basis—play a large role in second-language acquisition.

If, as many believe, English can be learned solely through prolonged exposure, why do so many students fail to master cognitive academic language? Some clues to this perplexity can be found beyond the language itself, in the sociocultural context. Do the students feel that their languages and cultures are validated by the school? Do the patterns of schooling mirror the students' modes of cognition? A well-meaning teacher, even with the most up-to-date pedagogy, may still fail to foster achievement if students are socially and culturally uncomfortable and alienated. Sociocultural issues are explored here with a view toward helping teachers bridge culture and language gaps between home and school.

Family Acculturation and Use of the First and Second Languages Acculturation is the process of adapting to a new culture. Acculturation depends on factors beyond language itself and beyond the individual learner's motivation, capabilities, and learning style; it usually is a family-wide phenomenon. Moreover, acculturation may not be a desirable goal for all groups.

Why do some students from certain minority backgrounds do better in school than others? Ogbu (1978) drew a distinction between various types of immigrant groups. *Castelike minorities* are those minority groups that were originally incorporated into society against their

will and have been systematically exploited and depreciated over generations through slavery or colonization. Because of discrimination, caste-like minorities traditionally work at the lowest-paying and least-desirable jobs, from which they cannot rise regardless of talent, motivation, or achievement. Therefore, academic success is not always seen as helpful for members of these groups.

On the other hand, immigrant minorities who are relatively free of a history of depreciation, such as immigrants to the United States from El Salvador, Guatemala, and Nicaragua, may view the United States as a land of opportunity. These immigrants do not view education as irrelevant or exploitative but rather as an important investment. Therefore, the internalized attitudes about the value of school success for family members may influence the individual student.

In his acculturation model, Schumann (1978) concluded that if the following factors are in place, acculturation will take place:

- Members of the primary-language and English-language groups view each other with positive attitudes, are of equal status, and expect to share social facilities.
- The primary-language and the English-language groups have congruent cultural patterns, and the English-language group desires that the primary-language group assimilate.
- The primary-language group is small and not very cohesive, and members expect to stay in the area for an extended period.

Schumann's model demonstrates that the factors influencing a student's L1 and L2 use are complicated by sociocultural variables stemming from society at large.

BEST PRACTICE Learning about Family Acculturation

- If possible, visit the student's home.
- Observe the family's degree of acculturation.
- Note the family's media consumption: What television shows does the family watch, in which language? Do family members read books, magazines, or newspapers? In which languages?

A family's use of L1 and L2 is also influenced by the relative status of the primary language in the eyes of the dominant culture. In modern U.S. culture, the social value and prestige of speaking a second language vary with socioeconomic position; they also vary depending on which second language is spoken.

Many middle-class parents believe that having their children learn a second language benefits their children personally and socially and will later benefit them professionally. In fact, it is characteristic of the elite group in the United States who are involved in scholarly work, diplomacy, foreign trade, or travel to desire to be fully competent in two languages. However, the languages that parents wish their children to study are often not those spoken by recently arrived immigrants. This suggests that a certain bias exists in being bilingual—that being competent in a “foreign” language is valuable, whereas proficiency in an immigrant language is a burden to be overcome.

BEST PRACTICE Recognizing Biases

- Recognize areas in which there may be differences in language use and in which those differences might create friction because the minority group's use may be deemed "inferior" by the majority.
- Be honest about your own biases, recognizing that you communicate these biases whether or not you are aware of them.
- Model correct usage without overt correction and the student in time will self-correct—*if* the student chooses Standard English as the appropriate sociolinguistic choice for that context.

Family Values and School Values As student populations in U.S. schools become increasingly diversified both linguistically and culturally, teachers and students have come to recognize the important role that attitudes and values play in school success. At times the values of the school may differ from those of the home. Not only the individual's attitudes but also the family's values and attitudes toward schooling influence a child's school success.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Family Values

Amol is a third-grade student whose parents were born in India. As the only son in a male-dominant culture, he has internalized a strong sense of commitment to becoming a heart surgeon. His approach to classwork is painstaking, slow, and careful, and often he is the last one to finish an assignment during class. His teacher's main frustration with Amol is that he cannot quickly complete his work. However, when talking with Amol's family, the teacher notes that his parents seem pleased with his perfectionism and not at all concerned with his speed at tasks. In this respect, home and school values differ.

In the example of Amol and his family, the teacher epitomizes a mainstream U.S. value: speed and efficiency in learning. This value is exemplified in the use of timed standardized testing in the United States. Teachers often describe students of other cultures as being lackadaisical and uncaring about learning, when in fact these students may be operating within a different time frame and value system.

Other values held by teachers and embodied in classroom procedures have to do with task orientation. The typical U.S. classroom is a place of work in which students are expected to conform to a schedule, keep busy, maintain order, avoid wasting time, conform to authority, and achieve academically to attain personal worth (LeCompte, 1981). Working alone is also valued, and children often spend a great deal of time in activities that do not allow them to interact verbally with other people or to move physically around the room.

Children need to find within the structure and content of their schooling those behaviors and perspectives that permit them to switch between home and school cultural behaviors and values without inner conflict or crises of identity. Teachers who examine their feelings about such values as cooperation versus competition, aggression versus compliance, anonymity versus self-assertion, sharing time versus wasting time, and disorder versus order can use this examination to develop a more flexible cultural repertoire.

The danger of excluding the students' cultures from the classroom is that students may become oppositional. Ogbu and Matute-Bianchi (1986) attributed achievement difficulties on the part of some Mexican American children to a distrust of academic effort, a reflection of the destructive patterns of subordination and social and economic deprivation of the minority group. Segregated schools that offered inferior education resulted in a general mistrust of schooling, and students had difficulty in accepting, internalizing, and following school rules, leading to a lack of achievement. This element of resistance or opposition often takes the form of mental withdrawal, high absenteeism, or reluctance to do classwork.

Schools with high concentrations of English learners may deprive children of the use of their cultural knowledge and experience. If teachers consistently offer examples drawn from the dominant culture and not that of the students, present literature that displays pictures and photographs of one culture only, and set up classroom procedures that allow some students to feel less comfortable than others, English learners become alienated from their home, family, and culture. This is unfair and damaging. The implementation of a rich and flexible cultural repertoire can encourage students to draw on their culture to promote achievement.

Institutional Support for the Primary Language and Those Who Speak It Educators may view a student's ability to speak a home language other than English as an advantage or as a liability toward school success. Those who blame bilingual students for failing in school often mistakenly believe that they and their parents are uninterested in education and unwilling to comply with teacher-assigned tasks, perhaps from not acquiring sufficient English or from "cultural mismatch" between the ways children learn at home or among their peers and the ways they are expected to learn at school.

In fact, schools often operate in ways that advantage certain children and disadvantage others, causing distinct outcomes that align with social and political forces in the larger cultural context. Institutional support for the primary language and students who speak it is a prime factor in school success for these students. This avoids the outcome of maintaining the poor in a permanent underclass and of legitimizing inequality (Giroux, 1983), with schooling used to reaffirm existing class boundaries.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

The Way Schools Use Language to Perpetuate Social-Class Inequality

The fourth-grade class was electing student council representatives. Mrs. Lark called for nominations. Mary, a monolingual-English-speaking European American student, nominated herself. Mrs. Lark accepted Mary's self-nomination and wrote her name on the board. Rogelio, a Spanish-speaking Mexican American child with limited English proficiency, nominated Pedro. Mrs. Lark reminded the class that the representative must be "outspoken." Rogelio again said "Pedro." Mrs. Lark announced to the class again that the representative must be "a good outspoken citizen." Pedro turned red and stared at the floor. Rogelio did not pursue Pedro's nomination. No other Mexican American child was nominated, and Mary won the election. Pedro and Rogelio were unusually quiet for the rest of the school day and avoided making eye contact with the teacher. (Adapted from Erickson, 1977, p. 59)

Incidents like the one in Mrs. Lark's classroom are generally unintentional on the teacher's part. Teachers have specific ideas and guidelines about appropriate conduct, deportment, and language abilities that stem from their own cultural patterns. A beginning step in helping all students feel fully integrated into the class and the learning environment is for teachers to become sensitive to their own cultural and linguistic predispositions.

Nieto and Bode (2011) identified numerous structures within schools that affect student learning: tracking, testing, the curriculum, pedagogy, the school's physical structure and disciplinary policies, limitations of both students and teachers, and barriers to parent and community involvement.

Tracking, the practice of placing students in groups of matched abilities, despite its superficial advantages, in reality often labels and groups children for years and allows them little or no opportunity to change groups. Secondary school personnel who place English learners in low tracks or in nonacademic ELD classes preclude those students from any opportunity for higher-track, precollege work. In contrast, a supportive school environment offers equal education opportunity to all students, regardless of their language background.

Testing results determine the kinds of curricula taught to various groups. Students who respond poorly on standardized tests are often given "basic skills" in a remedial curriculum that is essentially the same as the one in which they were not experiencing success. A supportive school is one that offers testing adaptations for English learners as permitted by law—for example, academic testing in the primary language, extended time for test taking, and fully trained testing administrators.

Curriculum design is often at odds with the needs of learners. Only a small fraction of knowledge is codified into textbooks and teacher's guides, and this is rarely the knowledge that English learners bring from their communities. Moreover, the curriculum may be systematically watered down for the "benefit" of children in language-minority communities through the mistaken belief that such students cannot absorb the core curriculum. As a result, students' own experiences are excluded from the classroom, and little of the dominant culture curriculum is provided in any depth. A supportive environment is one that maintains high standards while offering a curriculum that is challenging and meaningful.

Pedagogy, the way students are taught, is often tedious and uninteresting, particularly for students who have been given a basic skills curriculum in a lower-track classroom. The pressure to "cover" a curriculum may exclude learning in depth and frustrate teachers and students alike. Pedagogy that is supportive fully involves students—teachers make every effort to present understandable instruction that engages students at high levels of cognitive stimulation.

The physical structure of the school also affects the educational environment. Many inner-city schools are built like fortresses to forestall vandalism and theft. Rich suburban school districts, by contrast, may provide more space, more supplies, and campuslike schools for their educationally advantaged students. Supportive schooling is observable: Facilities are humane, well cared for, and materially advantaged.

Disciplinary policies may result in certain students being punished more often than others, particularly those who wear high-profile clothing, have high physical activity levels, or tend to hold an attitude of resistance toward schooling. Rather than defining students as deviant or disruptive, teachers can design cooperative groups that allow children to express themselves and learn at the same time, thus supporting rich cultural and linguistic expression.

The limited role of students may exclude them from taking an active part in their own schooling, and alienation and passive frustration may result. However, in addition to language barriers, cultural differences may preclude some students from participating in ways that the mainstream culture rewards. The following Classroom Glimpse illustrates the ways in which students' culturally preferred participation styles can differ from the teacher's.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Culturally Preferred Participation Styles

In classrooms on the Warm Springs (Oregon) Reservation, teacher-controlled activity dominated. All the social and spatial arrangements were created by the teacher: where and when movement took place; where desks were placed and even what furniture was present in the room; and who talked, when, and with whom. For the Warm Springs students, this socialization was difficult. They preferred to wander to various parts of the room, away from the lesson; to talk to other students while the teacher was talking; and to “bid” for one another’s attention rather than that of the teacher.

For the Native American children, the small-reading-group structure in which participation was mandatory, individual, and oral was particularly ill fitting. They frequently refused to read aloud, did not utter a word when called on, or spoke too softly to be audible. On the other hand, when students controlled and directed interaction in small-group projects, they were much more fully involved. They concentrated fully on their work until it was completed and talked a great deal to one another in the group. Very little time was spent disagreeing or arguing about how to go about a task. There was, however, explicit competition with other groups.

A look at the daily life of the Warm Springs children revealed several factors that would account for their willingness to work together and their resistance to teacher-directed activity. First, they spent much time in the company of peers with little disciplinary control from older relatives. Community life encouraged accessible and open community-wide celebrations. No single individual directed and controlled all activity, and there was no sharp distinction between audience and performer. Individuals were permitted to choose for themselves the degree of participation in an activity. Schooling became more successful for these students when they were able to take a more active part.

Source: Adapted from Philips, 1972, pp. 370–394

The limited role of teachers may exclude them from decision making just as students are disenfranchised. This may lead teachers to have negative feelings toward their students. A supportive environment for English learners should be supportive of their teachers as well.

Barriers to family and community involvement may exclude families from participation in their children’s schooling. Parents may find it difficult to attend meetings, may be only symbolically involved in the governance of the school, or may feel a sense of mismatch with the culture of the school just as their children do. In circumstances like these, it is simplistic to characterize parents as being unconcerned about their children’s education. School personnel, in consultation with community and parent representatives, can begin to ameliorate such perceptions by talking with one another and developing means of communication and interaction appropriate for parent and school communities.

If a problem occurs—such as students skipping classes—the district’s ELD and bilingual staff and several school principals might meet individually with students and parents to search for the reasons why students are missing classes. Community meetings can be held with parents, teachers, school principals, and central office administrators to strengthen the home–school partnership; the meetings might rotate among the schools involved, and include teacher- and parent-facilitated discussions, incorporating the home language(s). A follow-up communiqué to participants indicating successes or the need for further meetings is imperative in these cases.

A supportive classroom environment for CLD students is less effective if the environment or practices of the school are discriminatory. Teachers can exercise influence within the school and society at large to support the right of CLD students to receive an effective education.

Sociocultural Support for L1 in the Classroom Environment Various sociocultural factors influence the support that is offered for the primary language and its speakers in the classroom. If students are seated in rows, with the teacher instructing the whole group, many students may not be productive. They may benefit more from the opportunity to interact with peers as they learn, speaking their primary language if necessary to exchange information.

Cooperative learning has had positive results in the education of CLD students. Positive race relations among students and socialization toward prosocial values and behaviors are potential outcomes of a cooperative learning environment. Students may gain psychological support from one another as they acquire English, and this support can help the students work with the teacher to achieve a workable sociocultural compromise between the use of L1 and L2 in the classroom.

BEST PRACTICE

Supporting the Primary Language

- Feature the primary language(s) of students on bulletin boards throughout the school and within the classroom.
- Showcase primary-language skills in written and oral reports.
- Involve primary-language speakers as guests, volunteers, and instructional assistants.

Political Factors Why is there disproportionate academic failure among groups of students, particularly comparing majority White with African Americans, Latinos, English learners, or low-income students, for example? Why do those of European American origin, or those who are White, monolingual-English-speaking students, including those who come from high-income groups, succeed disproportionately? Teachers who are critical thinkers interrogate those processes that affect their teaching and professional performance and, in turn, gain political and ideological insight about the process of schooling and their role as teachers.

All societies in the world have a system of social stratification, meaning that the social system is hierarchically arranged and that some groups have different access to power, resources, and even perceived social worth. The United States, as a complex society, is also stratified, and its social stratification processes are influenced by class, race, occupation, income, and level of education, along with race, gender, age, region of residence, and, in some cases, national origin and levels of English-language proficiency.

Teachers are themselves members of a social class, race, or gender whose perceptions of specific groups, such as English learners, are influenced by their worldviews and preconceptions. Teachers who are clear about the ways in which social-class affiliations influence students' behavior, sense of identity, and academic performance can gain insight, for example, into why low-status students may initially resist the authority of a middle-class teacher.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Blaming the Students

One beginning teacher admitted that 70 percent of the students in her sixth-period high school English class were failing. Notice that she could not say, “I have failed 70 percent of my students,” or “due to academic tracking, 70 percent of students who cannot meet current standards of performance in English were placed in one class.” Admitting that grading and tracking practices are partly to blame for students’ failures prevents teachers and administrators from solely blaming the students.

Institutional racism is a set of practices and policies condoned by the school that privileges some students and discriminates against others (see also Chapter 9). To counteract institutional racism teachers of English learners can act informally to recruit teachers from underrepresented minorities as colleagues, monitor the academic quality of life available to English learners, volunteer to organize clubs that can effectively recruit English learners, and involve parents and the community in cooperative endeavors.

Linguistic racism, discrimination based on language, is taking the place of discrimination once based exclusively on race. For instance, each day millions of Americans are denied their right to speak in their own words. Santa Ana (2004) suggested that this linguistic racism is most evident in schools where the largest silenced group is the millions of American schoolchildren who do not speak English. He stated that although racism based on skin color has been publicly discredited, linguistic discrimination remains largely unexamined by most people in the United States. Teachers with integrity oppose any act that systematically silences students or punishes those who speak their native or home language.

Political clarity can help teachers act together as professionals to question and interrupt unfair and unjust practices in their individual classrooms as well as their schools. Unfortunately, teachers are often isolated in the job, working alone, with few opportunities to interact collegially to address common concerns. However, when teachers remove barriers of isolation, they can compare notes about their collective experiences. They may begin to see that individual concerns are not chance occurrences but are instead related to wider social issues. Teaching with integrity means working collectively with other colleagues and community members to name and oppose institutionalized practices that dehumanize and disempower people based on their racial or linguistic backgrounds.



Theories of second-language acquisition provide the rationale and framework for the daily activities of instruction. Teachers who are aware of the basic principles of contemporary language acquisition and learning are better equipped to plan instruction and explain their practices to peers, parents, students, and administrators.

Although the teacher’s role is valuable as students learn a second language, actually learning the language is the responsibility of the learner. Research on cognitive processes shows that learners construct and internalize language-use rules during problem solving or authentic communication. The

shift from *what the teacher does* to *what the learner does* is a characteristic of contemporary thinking about learning in general and language acquisition specifically and has wide implications for teaching English learners. Social interaction is key—and a classroom in which English learners are free to use their L1, have opportunities to interact with native-English speakers, and are encouraged and supported in the difficult task of acquiring fluency in academic English, is a classroom that fosters the academic success of English learners.



Programs for English Learners

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter, you should be able to . . .

- Recall major events in the support for bilingual competence in the United States;
- Survey federal and state requirements for bilingual education programs;
- Discuss major issues in the politics of bilingual education;
- Describe how education policies promote equity and empowerment for English learners;
- Explore the strengths and drawbacks of various types of programs for English learners; and
- Explain how school can sustain partnerships with families of English learners.

English learners enter schooling fluent in a primary language other than English, a proficiency that can function as a resource. In many parts of the world, including Canada, second-language instruction is considered either a widely accepted component of being well educated or a legal mandate in an officially bilingual country. Acquiring a second language is not easy, especially to the level of using that language to succeed in postsecondary education. English learners face that challenge daily.

A growing number of schools in the United States offer two-way immersion programs that help English learners develop academic competence in their heritage language while acquiring fluency and literacy in English—at the same time, native-English-speaking students develop speaking fluency and academic competence in the home language of the English learners. These programs showcase the idea that *multicompetent language use* (Cook, 1999, p. 190) is a valuable skill. Proficiency in multiple languages is also a career enhancement in the modern world of global commerce.

The classrooms of the United States are increasingly diverse, with students coming from many countries of the world. The challenge to any English-language development (ELD) program is to cherish and preserve the rich cultural and linguistic heritage of the students as they acquire English.

This chapter addresses the history, legality, and design of program models that induct speakers of other languages into English instruction. Although most of these programs take place at the elementary level, an increasing number of students immigrate to the United States at the middle and high school levels, and programs must be designed to meet their needs as well. The program models presented in this chapter vary greatly on one key dimension—how much encouragement is offered to students to maintain their primary language and how much instructional support they receive to accomplish this.

The History of Multilingual Competency in the United States

Bilingualism has existed in the United States since the colonial period, but over the more than two centuries of American history it has been alternately embraced and rejected. The immigrant languages and cultures in North America have enriched the lives of the people in American communities, yet periodic waves of language restrictionism have virtually eradicated the capacity of many U.S. residents to speak a foreign or second language, even those who are born into families with a heritage language other than English. For English learners, English-only schooling has often brought difficulties, cultural suppression, and discrimination even as English has been touted as the key to patriotism and success. This section traces the origin and development of, and support for, language services for English learners in the United States.

Early Bilingualism in the United States

At the time of the nation's founding, at least twenty languages could be heard in the American colonies, including Dutch, French, German, and numerous Native American languages. In 1664 at least eighteen colonial languages were spoken on Manhattan Island. Bilingualism was common among both the working and educated classes, and schools were established to preserve the linguistic heritage of new arrivals. The Continental Congress published many official documents in German and French as well as in English. German schools were operating as early as 1694 in Philadelphia, and by 1900 more than 4 percent of the U.S. elementary school population was receiving instruction either partially or exclusively in German. In 1847, Louisiana authorized instruction in French, English, or both at the request of parents. The Territory of New Mexico authorized Spanish–English bilingual education in 1850 (Crawford, 1999). Table 4.1 surveys the early history of language use and policy in America.

Although there were several such pockets of acceptance for bilingual education, other areas of the country effectively restricted or even attempted to eradicate immigrant and minority languages. In 1879, the federal government forced Native American children to attend off-reservation, English-only schools where they were punished for using their native language. In the late nineteenth century, in the eastern United States, as large numbers of eastern Europeans immigrated, descendants of the English settlers began to harbor resentment against these newcomers. At the same time, new waves of Mexican and Asian immigration in the West brought renewed fear of non-English influences (Crawford, 1999).

TABLE 4.1 Early History of Language Use and Policy in America

Date	Event	Significance
Pre-1492	North America is rich in indigenous languages.	Linguistic diversity is a type of biodiversity, encoding millennia of information about the physical and social environment.
16th century	Spain establishes missions in what is now California.	Spanish rulers decree the replacement of indigenous languages by Spanish.
1781	U.S. Articles of Confederation are written in English, French, and German.	Early acknowledgment of U.S. multilingualism on the part of the Founding Fathers.
1800s	European Americans settle Western U.S.	Mexicans and Native Americans are excluded from Whites-only schools.
1828	U.S. government signs a treaty with Cherokee tribes.	The U.S. government recognizes the language rights of the Cherokee tribes.
1839	Ohio adopts bilingual education.	Schools could operate in German and English by parental request.
1848	Mexican territory is annexed to the United States in the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.	Mexican residents of appropriated territory in what are now California, Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, Utah, and Nevada are promised the right to use Spanish in schools, courts of law, employment, and everyday life.
1864	The federal government forces Native American children to attend off-reservation schools.	Schools are English-only. Native Americans are punished for using their native language.
1888	First antibilingual education legislation is passed.	Wisconsin and Illinois attempt to institute English-only schooling.
1898	U.S. wins Spanish-American War and colonizes Puerto Rico and the Philippines.	Public and private schools are forced to use English as the language of instruction. Submersion in English is a sustained policy in Puerto Rican schools until the 1950s.

BEST PRACTICE**Early Cherokee Language Rights**

Under an 1828 treaty, the U.S. government recognized the language rights of the Cherokee tribe. Eventually, the Cherokees established a twenty-one-school educational system that used the Cherokee syllabary to achieve a 90 percent literacy rate in the native language. About 350,000 Aniyunwiya (Cherokee) people currently live primarily in Oklahoma and North Carolina, and about 22,000 speak the language (which today is known as Tsalagi). (www.native-languages.org/cherokee.htm)

The Struggles for Language Education Rights in the Twentieth Century

World War I brought anti-German hysteria, and various states began to criminalize the use of German in all areas of public life. Subsequently, fifteen states legislated English as the basic

language of instruction. This repressive policy continued during World War II, when Japanese-language schools were closed. Until the late 1960s, “Spanish detention”—being kept after school for using Spanish—remained a formal punishment in the Rio Grande Valley of Texas, where using a language other than English as a medium of public instruction was a crime (Crawford, 1999).

Although the U.S. Supreme Court, in the *Meyer v. Nebraska* case (1923), extended the protection of the Constitution to everyday speech and prohibited coercive language restriction on the part of states, the nativist backlash during and after World War I had fundamentally changed public attitudes toward learning in other languages. European immigrant groups felt strong pressures to assimilate, and bilingual instruction by the late 1930s was virtually eradicated throughout the United States. This assimilationist mentality worked best with northern European immigrants. For other language minorities, especially those with dark complexions, English-only schooling brought difficulties. Discrimination and cultural repression became associated with language repression.

After World War II, writers began to speak of language-minority children as being “culturally deprived” and “linguistically disabled.” The cultural deprivation theory pointed to such environmental factors as inadequate English-language skills, lower-class values, and parental failure to stress educational attainment. On the basis of their performance on IQ tests administered in English, a disproportionate number of English learners ended up in special classes for the educationally handicapped.

Bilingual education was reborn in the early 1960s in Dade County, Florida, as Cuban immigrants, fleeing the 1959 revolution, requested bilingual schooling for their children. The first program at the Coral Way Elementary School was open to both English and Spanish speakers. The objective was fluency and literacy in both languages. Subsequent evaluations of this bilingual program showed success both for English-speaking students in English and for Spanish-speaking students in Spanish and English. Hakuta (1986) reported that by 1974 there were 3,683 students in bilingual programs in the elementary schools nationwide and approximately 2,000 in the secondary schools.

Legal and Legislative Mandates Supporting Language Education Rights

Progress in ELD services in the United States has taken place on three fronts: cultural, legislative, and judicial. Culturally, the people of the United States have seemed to accept bilingualism when it has been economically useful and to reject it when immigrants were seen as a threat. Legislative and judicial mandates have reflected this ambivalence.

After the civil rights era, the provision of services for English learners has been viewed as a right. This is consonant with the Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights signed in Barcelona in June 1996, the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and the Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National, Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities of the General Assembly of the United Nations (1992).

Lau v. Nichols In 1973 a group of non-English-speaking Chinese families sued San Francisco Unified School District officials, claiming that “sink or swim” instruction (denial of language development services) was a violation of students’ civil rights under Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Lower federal courts had absolved the school district of any responsibility for minority children’s “language deficiency.” But a unanimous Supreme Court ruled as follows: “There is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum, for students who do not understand English are effectively

foreclosed from any meaningful education”—essentially stating that imposing the requirement that a child must have basic skills in English before effectively participating in the educational program is “to make a mockery of public education” (414 U.S. 563).

Although *Lau v. Nichols* did not specify what type of program a school district must offer, the Chinese parents who sued the San Francisco Unified School District formed an advisory committee, and eventually a program emerged that satisfied the requirements set forth by the court.

In 1975, the May 25 Memorandum from the Office for Civil Rights (also called the Lau Remedies) mandated that school districts with more than 5 percent national-origin minority children must offer special language instruction for students with a limited command of English. To be in compliance with *Lau v. Nichols*, the Lau Remedies are still used as the required elements in most states. They prohibit the assignment of students to classes for the handicapped on the basis of their English-language skills, disallow placing such students in vocational tracks instead of teaching them English, and mandate that administrators communicate with parents in a language they can understand.

Because the states reserve the right to dictate educational policy, services for English learners have depended on the vagaries of state law. When the U.S. Congress enacted legislation to begin Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, federal funding became available for bilingual education programs. Almost simultaneously, the courts began to rule that students deprived of bilingual education must receive compensatory services. Together, the historical precedents, federal legislative initiatives, and judicial fiats combined to establish bilingual education in the United States (see Tables 4.2 and 4.3).

DID YOU KNOW?

INDIGENOUS LANGUAGE RIGHTS

Times have changed for Native American language speakers. In the United States, in 2010 there were 372,095 residents who spoke one of 169 native North American languages (Siebens & Julian, 2011). The most-spoken Native American language was Navajo, with 169,471 speakers. In 1990, the U.S. Congress passed Public Law 101-477, which sustains the right of Native Americans to express themselves through the use of Native American languages in any public proceeding, including publicly supported education programs. Among the goals of this law are the following:

- Preserve, protect, and promote the rights and freedom of Native Americans to use, practice, and develop Native American languages
- Increase student success and performance
- Promote students' awareness and knowledge of their culture and history
- Enhance student and community pride

Federal and State Requirements for ELD Services

Successive authorizations of the federal Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 1968, 1974, 1978, 1988, and 1989 incorporated federal recognition of the unique educational disadvantages faced by non-English-speaking students. In 1968, Congress authorized \$7.5 million to finance seventy-six bilingual education projects serving 27,000 children. In 1974, Congress specifically linked equal educational opportunity to bilingual education, allowing Native

TABLE 4.2 The Early Twentieth Century: Language Use and Policy Are Contested in the United States

Date	Event	Significance
1906	Congress passes English requirement for naturalized citizenship.	First national English-language requirement
1917–1918	The governor of Iowa bans the use of any foreign language in public. Ohio passes legislation to remove all uses of German from the state's elementary schools.	With German speakers as the target, mobs raid schools and burn German textbooks. Subsequently, fifteen states legislate English as the basic language of instruction.
1920s–1970s	Ku Klux Klan members in Maine, numbering 150,141 in 1925, burn crosses in hostility to French Americans.	French is forbidden to be spoken in schools in Maine.
1923	<i>Meyer v. Nebraska</i>	The Supreme Court bans an English-only law in a case brought by German Americans.
1930	<i>Del Rio Independent School District v. Salvatierra</i>	A Texas superior court finds that the Del Rio Independent school district cannot segregate Mexican students, but a higher court rules that the segregation is necessary to teach English to Mexican students.
1931	<i>Lemon Grove v. Álvarez</i>	A state superior court rules that school segregation is against the law in California.
1936	Massive IQ testing of Puerto Ricans in New York is used to justify widespread school placement of Spanish-speaking children two to three years below grade level.	Thousands of New York Puerto Ricans launch a campaign for bilingual education.
1941	Japanese-language schools are closed.	Japanese are incarcerated in internment camps with English-only schools.
1946, 1947	<i>Méndez v. Westminster School District</i>	The U.S. Ninth District Court applies the 14th Amendment to schools, insisting “schools must be open to all children . . . regardless of lineage.”
1961	Immigrants fleeing the Cuban revolution demand Spanish-language schooling.	Dade County, Florida, implements Spanish–English bilingual education.
1968	10,000 Chicanos boycott schools in Los Angeles demanding bilingual education and more Latino teachers; boycotts spread across U.S.	Leaders of Los Angeles boycott are arrested; two years later charges against them are declared unconstitutional.

TABLE 4.3 Key Legislation and Court Cases in the Struggle for English Learners' Language Rights

Date	Event	Significance
1964	The Civil Rights Act: Title VI	Prohibits denial of equal access to education on the basis of race, color, national origin, or limited proficiency in English in the operation of a federally assisted program. Compliance is enforced through the U.S. Office for Civil Rights.
1968	ESEA Title VII offers funding for bilingual education programs.	First bilingual kindergarten in New York City; first bilingual education major at Brooklyn College.
Early 1970s	Bilingual programs reach only one out of every forty Mexican American students in the Southwest.	Based on these data, the U.S. Office of Civil Rights begins enforcing compliance with judicial mandates.
1972	<i>Serna v. Portales Municipal Schools</i>	The first federal court enforcement of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act. A federal judge orders instruction in native language and culture as part of a desegregation plan.
1973	<i>Keyes v. School District No. 1, Denver, Colorado</i>	Latinos must be covered by <i>Brown v. Board of Education</i> —Mexicans cannot be labeled “White” and used to create falsely desegregated schools containing only Blacks and Latinos.
1974	The Equal Education Opportunities Act (EEOA) (U.S. Congress)	“No state shall deny equal educational opportunities to an individual on account of his or her race, color, sex, or national origin by the failure of an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs.”
1974	<i>Lau v. Nichols</i>	U.S. Supreme Court establishes the right of students to differential treatment based on their language minority status, but it does not specify a particular instructional approach.
1975	Lau Remedies—guidelines from the U.S. Commissioner of Education	Standardized requirements for identification, testing, and placement into bilingual programs. Districts are told how to identify and evaluate children with limited English skills, what instructional treatments to use, when to transfer children to all-English classrooms, and what professional standards teachers need to meet.
1977	<i>Ríos v. Read</i>	A federal court rules that a bilingual program must include a cultural component.

(continued)

TABLE 4.3 Key Legislation and Court Cases in the Struggle for English Learners' Language Rights *Continued*

Date	Event	Significance
1981	<i>Castañeda v. Pickard</i>	The Fifth Circuit Court tests the 1974 EEOA statute, outlining three criteria for programs serving EL students. District programs must be: (1) based on “sound educational theory,” (2) “implemented effectively” through adequately trained personnel and sufficient resources, and (3) evaluated as effective in overcoming language barriers. Qualified bilingual teachers must be employed, and children are not to be placed on the basis of English-language achievement tests.
1982	<i>Plyler v. Doe</i>	The U.S. Supreme Court decides that a state’s statute that denies school enrollment to children of illegal immigrants “violates the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment.”
1987	<i>Gómez v. Illinois State Board of Education</i>	State school boards can enforce state and federal compliance with EEOA regulations. Districts must properly serve students who are limited in English.
1990	Florida Consent Decree	A federal district court can mandate and monitor statewide teacher preparation and school districts’ English learner education.
1994	California passes Proposition 187, which makes it illegal to provide public education to illegal immigrants.	Proposition is overturned in the courts because it violates <i>Plyler v. Doe</i> .
1998	California voters approve Unz Initiative Proposition 227 (ED Code 300-340).	Requires that K–12 instruction be overwhelmingly in English, restricting use of primary language as a means of instruction. Subsequent measures pass in Arizona and Massachusetts, but French speakers vote down similar initiative in Maine.
2001	No Child Left Behind Act, Title III	Federal funding is available to support schools in educating English learners.
2004	Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004 (IDEA), Public Law 108-446	Congress aligns education of children with disabilities with NCLB to mandate equity and accountability.
2004	<i>Williams et al. v. State of California et al.</i>	California schools must provide equitable access to textbooks, facilities, and teaching staffs, including teachers of English learners.

American and English-speaking children to enroll in bilingual education programs, and funding programs for teacher training, technical assistance for program development, and development and dissemination of instructional materials.

In 1978, Congress added to the definition of bilingual education, stipulating that instruction in English should “allow a child to achieve competence in the English language.” Additionally, parents were included in program planning, and personnel in bilingual programs were to be proficient in the language of instruction and English. In 1988, Congress increased funding to state education agencies, placed a three-year limit on participation in transitional bilingual programs, and created fellowship programs for professional training. Developmental bilingual programs were expanded to maintain the native language of students in the reauthorization of 1989.

When the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 was amended and reauthorized in 1994, it was within the framework of Goals 2000, with the goal to “educate limited-English-proficient children and youth to meet the same rigorous standards for academic achievement expected of all children and youth” ([7102][b]). This emphasis on standards was the linchpin of the 2001 reauthorization, the No Child Left Behind Act, in which all schools were required to provide qualified teachers, and all students were required to pass standardized tests.

Every Student Succeeds Act

Under the 2015 Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), a reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary School Act, states are required to provide assurance that they had adopted academic content standards in three areas: reading, mathematics, and science. Annual testing in reading and mathematics is required for all students from third to eighth grade and once in high school. Other mandates are that schools continue to report student achievement by subgroups and issue an annual state report card, among other data. Unlike measure under No Child Left Behind, the previous ESEA authorization, states are free to determine what consequences, if any, should result from the failure to measure up to required standards (Dufour, 2016).

The Florida Consent Decree

In 1990, a broad coalition of civil rights organizations involved in educational issues signed a consent decree giving the United States District Court, Southern District of Florida, the power to enforce an agreement with the Florida State Board of Education regarding the identification and provision of services to students whose native language is other than English. This remains the most extensive set of state mandates for the education of English learners.

The consent decree settlement terms mandate that six issues be addressed:

- *Identification and assessment.* National origin data of all students must be collected and retained in school districts, which must also form committees to oversee the assessment, placement, and reclassification of English learners.
- *Equal access to appropriate programming.* School districts must provide equal education opportunities for academic advancement and language support to English learners, including provisos for enhancing cross-cultural understanding and self-esteem.
- *Equal access to appropriate categorical and other programming for limited-English-proficient (LEP) students.* Schools must provide programs for compensatory education, exceptional students, dropout prevention, student service, prekindergarten, immigrant students, Chapter 1, pre-first-grade classes, home-school, and discipline.

- *Personnel.* Teachers must have various levels of English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) endorsement.
- *Monitoring.* Procedures must be followed by the Florida Department of Education to determine the extent to which school districts comply with the requirements of the agreement.
- *Outcome measures.* Mechanisms must be instituted to assess whether student achievement is improved as a result of applying the implementation guidelines.

Bilingual Education Laws in Various States

In 1998, California, with a school enrollment of approximately 1.4 million limited-English-proficient children, passed Proposition 227, a measure rejecting bilingual education. The proposition stipulated that

all children in California public schools shall be taught English by being taught in English. In particular, this shall require that all children be placed in English language classrooms. Children who are English learners shall be educated through sheltered English immersion during a temporary transition period not normally intended to exceed one year . . . Once English learners have acquired a good working knowledge of English, they shall be transferred to English language mainstream classrooms. (California State Code of Regulations [CSCR], 1998, Article 2, 305)

Fortunately, parents could sign waivers so their children could be “taught English and other subjects through bilingual education techniques. . . .” However, before parents could ask for a waiver, however, their child had to sit through thirty days of structured English immersion (SEI).

Language census figures from the California Department of Education show that since Proposition 227 took effect in 1998, three out of five children this law was designed to help remain limited in English, even as the number of English learners statewide has grown nearly 14 percent, to 193,376. Annual redesignation rates remain basically unchanged. Almost one-half million children had been “mainstreamed” to regular classrooms where they received little or no language support, even though they have still have been in need of ELD services. At least 141,428 English learners remain in fully bilingual classrooms at parental request.

To counteract this era of “structured English immersion,” Proposition 58 (the California Multilingual Education Act) was approved by voters in 2016, repealing the English-only requirement of Proposition 227. Under this new law, schools were authorized to expand the programs offered beyond English immersion. In fact, if more than twenty parents or guardians from any one grade level, or 30 percent of parents or guardians from the entire school make a collective request for dual-language or bilingual programs, the school is required to consider the possibility of offering such a program (Hopkinson, 2017). The hope is that this will increase the number of K–12 schools making dual-language education a viable option for students.

Williams et al. v. State of California et al.

In 2000, in a class action lawsuit, a group of plaintiffs, including Eliezer Williams, represented by the Mexican American Legal Defense and Educational Fund (MALDEF) sued the State of California, the California Department of Education, the California Board of Education, and the California Superintendent of Public Instruction on behalf of 75,000 public school students, alleging that substandard conditions in California schools were causing deprivation in violation of the equal protection clauses of the California Constitution. The lawsuit claimed that the students in question had suffered from poorly trained teachers, serious overcrowding,

inadequate physical conditions for schooling (filthy bathrooms, leaky roofs, and nonfunctioning heating and cooling systems), and insufficient or outdated textbooks.

A settlement was reached requiring the State of California to pass legislation mandating that every school district provide a uniform process for complaints regarding insufficient instructional materials, unsafe or unhealthy facility conditions, and teacher vacancies and misassignments. Such a law was signed into effect in 2004. Funding was also provided for facilities repair, new instructional materials, upgraded education for teachers of English learners, and phasing out of multitrack schools in the lowest-performing schools. In return for these provisions, the plaintiffs in *Williams v. California* agreed not to initiate lawsuits for redress until a period of four years had elapsed.

This lawsuit caused a renewed emphasis on the preparation of teachers for classrooms of English learners, as well as improve the learning conditions in California's underperforming schools. For information on the impact of this case, see American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) Foundation of Southern California (2007).

The convenient and widely accepted mythology in the United States that a person can be well educated and remain monolingual is questionable with regard to being “fully qualified.” The Hispanic population has become the largest minority in the United States, and educators who are able to augment their teaching using both second-language acquisition principles and Spanish-language skills are increasingly needed. Furthermore, teachers with linguistic competence can enhance the stature of the U.S. educational system in the eyes of the world, as U.S. citizens will no longer be viewed by linguistically multicompetent world citizens as being linguistically handicapped by monolingualism.

The Politics of Bilingual Education

Perceptive teachers realize that the topic of provision of services for English learners is surrounded by political debate. Given the fact that few Americans engage in controversy about second-language acquisition, it is obvious that the underlying arguments for or against bilingual education probably have to do with attitudes about immigration and the role of language in public life. This controversy will continue as Spanish speakers surpass African Americans as the largest minority population in the United States. These arguments treat three main topics: the wisdom of supporting heritage-language proficiency, the role of the native-English speaker in bilingual education, and the movement to establish governmental English-only policies. A fourth important aspect, Native American language revitalization, is less controversial but no less important.

Support for Heritage-Language Proficiency

Developmental bilingual programs are designed for students who enter schooling with a primary language other than English. The goals of developmental bilingual programs are maintenance and full development of the student's primary language; full proficiency in all aspects of English; grade-appropriate achievement in all domains of academic study; integration into all-English-language classrooms; and positive identification with both the culture of the primary- and the majority-language group (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000).

Changing the political climate from the current hostility to bilingual education will take a commitment on the part of English-only voters to foster heritage-language skills. Many heritage-language speakers enjoy and seek to preserve their primary language as a cultural and

economic resource. Because Spanish is the third most widely spoken language in the world, Spanish–English bilingualism is a distinct competitive advantage in the local and global marketplace, a valuable asset not only for bilingual individuals but also for society as a whole.

Support for Two-Way (Dual) Immersion

For parents of English speakers to start their child's second-language instruction in elementary school, they must seek to maintain or establish two-way immersion (TWI) language programs in conjunction with parents of language-minority students. In this model, English learners from a single language background are taught in the same classroom with approximately equal numbers of English-speaking students. Grade-level-approximate curriculum is provided in both languages. Speakers of each language develop proficiency in both their native and second languages, achieve academically through and in two languages, and come to appreciate each other's language and culture (Lindholm, 1994).

One advocate of TWI found that this model promises “mutual learning, enrichment, and respect”; is “the best possible vehicle for integration of language minority students, since these students are grouped with English-speakers for natural and equal exchange of skills”; and is “particularly appealing because it not only enhances the prestige of the minority language but also offers a rich opportunity for expanding genuine bilingualism to the majority population” (Porter, 1990, p. 154). Cummins (2000) argued that “a major advantage of two-way bilingual programs . . . is that they overcome segregation in a planned program that aims to enrich the learning opportunities of both minority- and majority-language students” (p. 142).

The politics of TWI are such that two distinct types of parents have sought and attained such programs in their communities. The first are the liberal, middle-class Whites who have seen the success of Canadian schools in promoting dual-language competence in English and French and have forged alliances with Spanish-speaking parents (for example, in Long Beach, California; Evanston, Illinois; and Alexandria, Virginia) or French-speaking parents (in the International School of Tucson French Program). The second group comprises parents who are not heritage speakers of a language but who want their children to regain the heritage language (for example, Spanish in Ontario-Montclair School District, California, or in San Antonio, Texas; Cantonese in San Francisco; or Navajo in Chinle, Arizona).

Parents of native-English-speaking children who advocate for the establishment of such a program for their children become advocates for language maintenance on the part of English learners. These parents see advantages in their children learning academic and social skills in two languages, and parents of English learners see that the home language is valued.

English-Only Efforts

The politics of the U.S. English-only (EO) movement are driven by an assimilationist model in the belief that for many immigrants the ability to speak English is a necessity for access to the American middle class. However, as Mora (2002) noted, “this outdated image of the assimilation process ignores the multiple patterns of acculturation for different ethnic groups, many of whom enjoy and preserve their bilingualism as an important cultural and economic resource” (n.p.). Therefore, the idea that the majority should enforce monolingualism on a linguistic minority amounts to linguistic authoritarianism.

Lawton (2013) reviews the history of EO political organizations and analyzes the discourse and language ideologies of these groups, including the strategies used to legitimize and (mis)represent the political support for EO—especially the ways in which hostility toward

immigrants is used to construct the use of other languages than English as a threat to national unity in the United States. May (2001) insists that EO arguments are characterized by historical inaccuracy about the role of English and other languages in the United States; that EO arguments misrepresent bilingual education and blame educational failure on a lack of English; that EO rhetoric uses language to maintain racialized distinctions; and that EO assumes that speaking English is a unifying force and its opposite, multilingualism, furthers national disunity. Thus EO uses a range of techniques and misinformation to stir hostility toward multi-competent language use in the United States.

However, evidence has shown repeatedly that English learners are more successful when given a firm foundation in their primary language (Ramírez, 1992) and that bilingualism offers a cognitive advantage (Cummins, 1976). To insist that the United States revert to an outmoded model of monolingualism is to attempt to turn back the clock to an era of language restrictionism, a poor move in a world in which bilingual skills are in increasing demand.

Language Revitalization

Many American Indian languages are undergoing revitalization, attempts to preserve endangered languages. Of the more than 800 Amerindian languages, including those in Central and South America, 500 are endangered or worse. In North America even relatively “healthy” languages such as Cherokee—spoken by 22,000 people—are threatened by low percentages of children learning the languages.

American Indian languages in the United States were deliberately destroyed as Indians were separated from their linguistic kin and resettled hundreds of miles away with individuals from other tribes who could not understand each other. Sending Indian children to boarding schools and punishing them for speaking their languages also caused linguistic devastation; for example, the percentage of Cherokee children being raised bilingually fell from 75 percent to 5 percent during the boarding-school-policy days. Other languages with fewer users died entirely. However, without such radical eradication policies, indigenous languages can persist for centuries. (In Paraguay, for example, more than 90 percent of the population is bilingual in Spanish and Guarani.)

Now that the American Indian languages of North America are in such a precarious situation, simply leaving them alone will not diminish their extinction trends. However, languages can be revitalized by inspiring younger generations to take an interest and pride in ancestral languages and by providing learning opportunities for them. Navajo, for instance, was in steep decline until the 1940s, when the language was used by the Navajo code talkers to thwart the Germans and Japanese in World War II, causing its prestige to soar and numbers of users to increase steadily (Redish, 2001). Ironically, Indian casino gaming has furnished profits for tribes to pay for language classes, a hopeful trend toward language revitalization.

Equity, Policy, and Empowerment Issues Related to English Learners

Despite the fact that research has shown the effectiveness of educational programs that support and develop a student’s primary language, very few students have ever been fully served with bilingual education programs. Therefore, one must ask, in a social climate that does not support primary-language programs for students, how can English learners nonetheless be

supported? How can communities empower themselves to ensure that language-minority students receive educational equity?

One answer—equivalent to the real estate mantra “location, location, location”—is the political mantra “lawyers, lawyers, lawyers.” MALDEF’s victory in *Williams et al. v. State of California et al.* has provided school-district-based means for families to submit grievances about poor facilities and resources. School authorities can also do much to create a positive affective environment for all students, communicating that school and the family are partners in education. They can respect parent program choices by encouraging parents to seek out primary-language maintenance programs and by staffing such programs in each neighborhood school rather than forcing families to bus their children to magnet programs.

Cummins (1989, 1996) contrasted educational practices that serve as *collaborative* relations of power with those that are *coercive*. Cummins cautioned that children who enter schools in which diversity is *not* affirmed soon perceive that their “difference” is not honored. Often English learners are not encouraged to think critically, to reflect, and to solve problems. This attitude on the part of teachers communicates a sense of reduced worth, resulting in poor motivation to achieve.

Pressuring students to conform to schooling practices that are unfair or discriminatory results in a loss of their identity as human beings. Teachers who are dedicated to social change must help students develop the confidence and motivation to succeed academically; they must also be aware of the ways in which spoken and unspoken language can encourage positive attitudes, building strong personal and social identities.

Achieving high-quality education for English learners has been a centuries-long struggle in the United States. Judging from many measures (e.g., achievement gap, dropout rates, expulsion and detention rates, retention/promotion, tracking, access to advanced placement [AP] classes, segregation, length of program, special education placements, gifted education placements, teacher qualifications, teacher retention, and funding and resources), the struggle is by no means over (Donato, 1997; Mora, 2000; Rumbaut, 1995).

Among the indicators that language-minority students have not done well in schools is the fact that nationally Latino students (30.3 percent of whom are limited-English-speaking) are behind their peers in fourth and eighth grade, with more than 50 percent below the basic level in reading and math. Latino students are being taught by less-qualified teachers, have less access to high-level rigorous classes, are enrolled in fewer college prep courses, and receive fewer state and local funds. More than 40 percent of the teachers teaching English-as-a-second language (ESL)/bilingual classes are not certified to teach bilingual education or ESL (Gutiérrez & Rodríguez, 2005). Only 9.9 percent of Latinos have a college degree, and 48.5 percent do not have a high school diploma (The term *Latino* rather than *Latinx* conforms to demographic research terms).

Statistics show poor progress as well for Vietnamese Americans; only 20 percent of this population has a college degree. The rates for Laotians, Cambodians, and Hmong are less than 10 percent) (www.asian-nation.org). Although stereotypes of academic achievement exist for Asian Americans, not all are successful; Korean and Chinese Americans fit this stereotype better than Southeast Asians.

There is no question that teachers of English learners must consider every student an individual in extending extra support for those who are struggling to acquire enough English to succeed in school. However, awareness of the policies and empowerment issues faced by language-minority students helps to put individual achievement in the context of the economic, political, and social challenges that minorities face in the United States.

Components of ELD Programs

In the widely varied climate of support from area to area in the United States, educational programs range from those that promote additive bilingualism to those that in effect eradicate primary-language proficiency. At the same time as learning English, the language-minority student must gain adequate access to academic content, so a comprehensive program must make provisions for both English and academic learning (and, ideally, a primary-language-maintenance component to ensure content and language development in the student's first language). The following sections offer a representative set of the main program types, with the acknowledgment that local implementations might result in a mix of program models or in outcomes that are not optimal.

Immersion Bilingual Education

Immersion bilingual education provides academic and language instruction in two languages so students can become proficient in both languages—additive bilingualism. The term has come from program models in Canada where middle-class English-speaking children are instructed in French. In the United States, English-only submersion programs for English learners are sometimes mischaracterized as immersion. This misconception has led to confusion. Canadian immersion is not, and never has been, a monolingual program, because both English and French are incorporated into the programs as subjects and as the media of instruction. In addition, the social context of French immersion is the upper-middle class in Québec Province, where both English and French have a high-language status for instructional purposes. In contrast, when

Dual-language programs encourage students from two different languages to teach one another their languages.



English learners are submerged in mainstream English classes, instruction is not given in their home language, and they do not become biliterate and academically bilingual.

U.S. Enrichment Immersion In the United States, a comparable social context with Canadian-style immersion is a program in which a foreign language is highly supported. This program model can be considered “enrichment immersion.” This model is distinguished from foreign language programs in elementary schools (FLES) in that academic instruction may be delivered directly in a foreign language, and tutoring and travel abroad are often an integral part of the program.

Dual-Language Development Programs (Additive Bilingualism) In TWI classrooms (also called two-way maintenance bilingual classrooms), English learners from a single-language background are grouped in the same classroom with approximately equal numbers of English-speaking students. Grade-level-approximate curriculum is provided in both languages. Speakers of each language develop proficiency in both their native and second languages, achieve academically through and in two languages, and come to appreciate each other’s languages and cultures (Lindholm, 1994). This enhances the status of the students’ primary language, promoting self-esteem and increased cultural pride (Lindholm-Leary, 2000), leading to increased motivation.

TWI programs had been implemented in thirty-one states in the United States by 2013 (Boyle, August, Tabaku, Cole, & Simpson-Baird, 2015), with the number of schools growing yearly. Nearly all schools are Spanish–English in design, although other schools immerse students in Cantonese–English, Japanese–English, Navajo–English, Mandarin–English, and German–English. The grade levels served are predominantly K–6, but middle schools and high schools are increasing in number.

Careful attention to a high-quality bilingual program in the context of primary-language maintenance is key to the success of dual immersion programs (Veeder & Tramutt, 2000). The U.S. Department of Education publishes a synopsis of current policies and practices (<http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/oela/resources.html>), as does a website from the California Department of Education (www.cde.ca.gov/sp/el/ip/faq.asp).

BEST PRACTICE

Mandarin Dual Immersion Program

The Cupertino Language Immersion Program (CLIP) is a kindergarten through eighth grade (K–8) education program located at R. I. Meyerholz Elementary (K–5) and Sam H. Lawson Middle School (6–8) in the Cupertino Union School District (CUSD), Cupertino, California. CLIP’s goals are to develop biliteracy, enrich culturally, and achieve academic proficiency that meets or exceeds the district guidelines.

Mandarin was chosen as the target language, and in 1998 CLIP became the first public K–8 two-way Mandarin immersion program in California. In 2007, the first class of immersion students graduated from middle school. CUSD supports CLIP with teachers, facilities, and English curriculum; all aspects of the Mandarin curriculum are financed by grants and donations. A list of Mandarin immersion schools can be found using a browser to search “Mandarin Immersion Parents Council.”

TWI is predicated on beginning literacy instruction for students in both languages. Reading in a foreign language above the level of emergent literacy takes place by using both literature and subject area content, following many of the same principles as reading in the native language. Time is given in class for reading so that students working in groups can facilitate

TABLE 4.4 Program Components of Two-Way Immersion

Program Elements	Program Features
Philosophy	Bilingualism as a resource
Goal	Additive bilingualism for English learners and native-English speakers
Purpose	Cognitive academic language proficiency achieved through grade-level-appropriate instruction in both languages
Ideal Outcome	Additive bilingualism for English learners and native-English speakers
Grade/Proficiency Level(s)	Usually begins in kindergarten, with cohort staying together throughout elementary or middle school
Placement Criteria	Parental exemption waiver
Exit Criteria	Parental choice
Program Length	Parent choice (usually K–6)
Class Composition	Ideally, 50/50 native-English speaker and English learner
Language Components	English-language development (ELD) and primary-language maintenance for English learners; English language arts (ELA) and primary-language-as-a-second-language instruction for native-English speakers
Limitations	ELD and ELA must be taught separately, as must primary-language maintenance versus primary-language-as-a-second-language instruction for native-English speakers, or both groups will be slowed in achievement in their native languages

one another's comprehension. To appeal to students' varied interests, all types of content are used (magazines, newspapers, plays, novels, stories, and poems), depending also on the proficiency level of students and the level of language studied. In this way, students are assured of receiving a challenging academic program in both languages.

Critics have alleged that TWI delays English learning and that these programs fail to teach English to English learners. Experts concede that the greatest challenge in two-way bilingual programs is to “reduce the gap” between the language abilities of the two groups (English learners and second-language learners [SLLs]). This gap appears when content classes in English are modified (slowed down) for English learners to “catch up,” or when content delivery in the primary language is slowed for SLLs. Table 4.4 features program elements of TWI programs.

BEST PRACTICE Promoting Additive Bilingualism

Skilled teachers help students build English proficiency on a strong first-language foundation by the following practices:

- Encourage families to preserve the home language
- Stock classroom libraries with books in the home language(s)
- Welcome classroom visitors and volunteers who speak the home language and ask them to address the class about the importance of proficiency in two languages

Not all primary-language maintenance programs are TWI, but TWI programs featuring native-English speakers often enjoy more community support. The following vignette illustrates the public pressure faced by one such school that offers primary-language maintenance.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Semillas Del Pueblo

A primary-language maintenance charter school in El Sereno (part of Los Angeles), Academia Semillas del Pueblo, found itself in the center of controversy when a local talk radio station and a conservative Internet blog made assertions that the school espoused a covert separatist ethos. Principal Minnie Ferguson said that despite low test scores, other measures of achievement are more encouraging, showing Academia students advancing to English fluency at a greater rate than Los Angeles Unified students overall.

The Academia held an open house in June, during which groups of children in brightly colored red and yellow shirts sat in circles and played games as others listened intently to teachers reading history lessons in Spanish or sang songs in Mandarin. The curricular emphasis was on multicultural values, with enrollment in 2005–2006 that included White, Black, Latino, Asian American, American Indian, and native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander children (Rivera, 2006).

Transitional Bilingual Education

Transitional bilingual education (TBE) programs support the use of students' home language in academic settings only during the period in which they are acquiring enough English proficiency to make the transition into English-only education. This supports a subtractive view of bilingualism, in effect requiring that English learners discontinue the use of their native language as they increase their fluency in English (Nieto, 2007). In these programs, students receive initial instruction in most, if not all, content areas in their home language while they are being taught English.

There are numerous problems with a TBE program. It may be perceived as a remedial program or another form of segregated, compensatory education. TBE rests on the common misconception that two or three years is sufficient time to learn a second language for schooling purposes, but in fact this is not long enough for students to build cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) either in their native tongue or in English. As a consequence, they may not be able to carry out cognitively demanding tasks in English or their home language.

Another shortcoming of TBE is the effect that English-only schooling has on home-language use. After transition to English, students frequently switch to English as their primary language of communication, and conversational fluency in the home language tends to erode. This retards rather than expedites academic progress in English, primarily because children and parents lose the benefit of a shared language for such purposes as homework help. For these and other reasons, TBE programs have not led to school success for many students (see Table 4.5).

TABLE 4.5 Program Components of Transitional Bilingual Education

Program Elements	Program Features
Philosophy	Bilingualism as a bridge to English proficiency
Goal	Bilingualism for English learners only until replaced by English as the language of instruction
Purpose	Cognitive academic language proficiency achieved through grade-level-appropriate instruction in English
Ideal Outcome	Educational parity for English learners and native-English speakers
Grade/Proficiency Level(s)	Usually K–2, from beginning through advanced proficiency
Placement Criteria	Parental exemption waiver
Exit Criteria	(See Chapter 8 on Reclassification)
Program Length	Usually three years (K–2)
Class Composition	Usually Spanish-speaking, but in California bilingual teachers have been certified in twenty languages
Language Components	Content instruction in the primary languages, combined with ELD instruction
Limitations	Lack of programmatic support after transition often leads to subtractive bilingualism
Limitations	Access to core academic content depends on SDAIE skills of teachers; program tends to segregate English learners

It is misleading to think of transition as a brief phase in the life of a bilingual student that happens as they reach a certain grade. As Uribe and Nathenson-Mejia (2008) pointed out,

Successful transition requires that the entire school have a specific infrastructure in which all the elements and personnel support English learners in the changes they are facing. The teachers across grade levels and from all content and enrichment areas ensure that students have the cultural, language, and literacy development that helps them meet the academic standards and succeed as new participants in the school. (pp. 3–4)

Structured English Immersion (SEI)

In SEI programs students are taught solely in English, supplemented with strategies designed to increase their understanding of the content. Teachers are not necessarily fluent in the primary language of the students. Many of the teaching techniques used for SEI programs were developed for multilingual, often urban, classes where there is not a single primary language shared by the learners and the use of all primary languages is not feasible.

SEI programs are designed to address the learning needs of English learners whose English is at the intermediate level of fluency or above. Unfortunately, this approach is too often used for beginning English learners. The chief element of “structure” built into these programs is the use of specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE), also called “sheltered instruction.” SDAIE incorporates specific teaching modifications to make a lesson understandable to students.

TABLE 4.6 Program Components of Structured English Immersion

Program Elements	Program Features
Philosophy	Academic content acquisition is more important than primary-language maintenance
Goal	Primary-language use for English learners is acceptable only until replaced by English as the language of instruction
Purpose	Cognitive academic language proficiency can be achieved through grade-level-appropriate instruction in English
Ideal Outcome	Educational parity for English learners and native-English speakers
Grade/Proficiency Level(s)	Possibility for all grades, all second-language-acquisition levels
Placement Criteria	Used with beginner through advanced English learners
Exit Criteria	(See Chapter 3 on Reclassification)
Program Length	Varies depending on individual progress
Class Composition	Mixed second-language-acquisition levels
Language Components	Content instruction in SDAIE-enhanced English combined with ELD instruction
Limitations	Access to core academic content depends on SDAIE skills of teachers

English learners obtain access to core curriculum subjects when the content is modified using SDAIE, and thus they can maintain parity with native-English-speaking classmates. Even literature classes can be modified with SDAIE so that English learners are not relegated to ELD programs whose course credits may not be considered college preparatory in nature. SEI programs also have a key advantage in that all teachers are responsible for the education of English learners and must be knowledgeable about language-development issues and techniques. However, even with an elaborate set of SDAIE techniques designed to augment verbal explanation, few experts would agree that a student subjected to SEI achieves the same level of comprehension that same student would reach if taught in the primary language.

Also missing in the SEI approach is the opportunity for additive bilingualism. The same drawbacks that can be identified in the TBE model also hold true for SEI programs: There is no development of the primary language, resulting in subtractive bilinguality (see Table 4.6). Moreover, as Lucas and Katz (1994) pointed out, the move toward English-only schooling disadvantages English learners and maintains the advantage of the socially powerful:

This unspoken and unacknowledged political motivation for allowing instruction only in English is suspect. If all instruction is provided in English, students who are not fluent in English cannot hope to successfully compete with those who are. Thus, this situation perpetuates the power differences that already exist between native-born speakers of standard (middle-class) English and others. (p. 541)

Newcomer (Front-Loaded) English

The goal of newcomer programs is to foster in recent immigrants rapid English learning during the period of early acculturation (Short & Boyson, 2004). Newcomer centers, like Newcomer High School in San Francisco, are more common at the secondary level than in the elementary

grades. Newcomer programs may be organized as centers, as separate programs in their own locations, or as programs within a school.

The chief rationale for newcomer programs is that students must learn English before they can be educated in English. A second rationale is that students need social and emotional support during a time in which they may experience culture shock. A third reason is that there are not enough teachers for the number of English learners, so they must be grouped for educational services.

Programs vary in length; some are full day, whereas others are half day or after school. Students may be enrolled for a year, four years, or only one semester. The curriculum is designed to help students move into the regular language-support program as soon as possible while helping them gain an understanding of U.S. schools and educational expectations. SDAIE techniques predominate in content classes, if offered. Increasingly, however, the newcomer model is called “front-loading.” This means that only ELD is offered, on an intensive basis, during the newcomer period, with students’ having limited access to the core curriculum during this time.

However, research has cast doubt on the argument that students must learn English before they can be educated in English (Orfield & Lee, 2005). Major disadvantages of the newcomer approach are, first, the idea that newcomers should be separated from the mainstream English-speaking population during their period of early adjustment. The U.S. Supreme Court, in the ruling *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), decided that separate educational programs, however well meaning, are inherently unequal in implementation. The idea that immigrants should be educated separately—at any stage—promotes segregation in a nation whose school facilities are unfortunately increasingly ethnically separate (Orfield & Lee, 2005).

A second drawback is that the newcomer approach is based on subtractive bilingual education. Academic support in the primary language is seldom offered, much less primary-language development. It is probably helpful for students to receive counseling and other assistance to help with culture shock, but no amount of humanistic socioemotional “support” in English during students’ adjustment period can realistically take the place of genuine support—receiving mediation in the primary language.

A third drawback is that content vocabulary cannot be learned effectively in a front-loaded manner because it is an integral part of learning content concepts. Unfortunately, students are inevitably slowed in their educational advancement when forced to halt academic learning until their English is developed to some arbitrary point. Moreover, if basic interpersonal skills take two years of exposure to English to develop, and cognitive academic language takes five or more years to develop (Hakuta, Butler, & Witt, 2000), then theoretically two to five years of “boot camp” English would be required, an inordinate amount of time for newcomers to be segregated. Thus, the newcomer, or front-loading, model is ill advised.

English-Language-Development (ELD) Programs

English is taught to English learners in a variety of ways, and studies have shown varying degrees of student success depending on the program model. Whereas it may be true that extensive exposure to a high-quality ELD program is a necessity, it is a fallacy to believe that total immersion in English is effective. When students are provided with a solid foundation in their primary language, faster English acquisition takes place. The following four models are the norm for teaching English to English learners.

Pull-Out ELD When English learners must leave their home classroom and receive instruction in vocabulary, grammar, oral language, or spelling for separate half hour to one-hour-a-day classes with a trained ELD teacher, they are said to be “pulled out.” Another such term is “dedicated ELD.” Such instruction rarely is integrated with the regular classroom program, and when students return to the home classroom, they usually are not instructed on curriculum they missed while they were gone. Moreover, they may miss the opportunity to interact with students who are native-English speakers who remain in the mainstream classroom. This lack only exacerbates an already difficult learning situation. Of the various program models, ELD pull-out is the most expensive to operate because it requires hiring an extra resource teacher (Chambers & Parrish, 1992).

Researchers who compared the instructional outcomes of a separate ELD oral language development instructional block at the kindergarten and first-grade levels found that teachers in a separate ELD period tended to be more efficient and focused on oral language objectives, but that the oral language instruction that ensued was no more focused on cognitive academic language than was a regular language arts class for English learners (Saunders, Foorman, & Carlson, 2006). Therefore, the particular opportunity was lost for developing CALP in a dedicated ELD period.

ELD Class Period Although pull-out ELD is normally found at the elementary level, students in the secondary school often have separate ELD classes that help them with their English skills. Unfortunately, these classes often focus entirely on the English language and do not help students with their academic subjects. Moreover, in some school districts students who are placed in separate ELD classes at the high school level do not receive college-entrance-applicable credits for these classes. In other words, to be placed in an ELD class is to be denied the chance for college admission. This unfortunate policy is avoided if students are placed in SDAIE-enhanced high school English classes that do bear college-entry credit value.

Content-Based ELD In content-based ELD classes, the ELD teacher collaborates with content area teachers to organize learning objectives around academic subjects to prepare students to master grade-level curricula (Ovando & Collier, 1998). Content-based ELD classes develop not only language proficiency but also content knowledge, cognitive strategies, and study skills. Learners receive comprehensible input in systematic, planned instruction that presents vocabulary, concepts, and structures required for mastery of the content. The content to be taught, general instructional goals, and time available for instruction are negotiated with the content teacher.

Learning English through content is a worldwide means of English instruction (Brinton & Master, 1997), whether for purposes of business, engineering, medicine, or science. It is most effective when content teachers take an interest in language development and ELD teachers take more responsibility for content.

Universal Access to the Language Arts Curriculum As described in Chapter 7, the goal of ELD programs is for English learners to make the transition from the ELD standards to the standards outlined in the *Reading/Language Arts Framework* and the ELA standards so they can be instructed in a mainstream classroom. One way that this can be accomplished is through implementing principles of Universal Design for Learning (UDL). The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) includes the recommendation that states should adhere to principles of UDL.

TABLE 4.7 Principles of Universal Design for Learning Applied to English Learners

Principle	Definition	Application
Inclusiveness	A classroom climate that communicates respect for varying abilities	Use bilingual signage and materials; welcome and respect aides and assistants.
Physical access	Equipment and activities that minimize sustained physical effort, provide options for participation, and accommodate those with limited physical abilities	Furnish assistive technologies such as screen readers and online dictionaries to assist in translation; make online chat rooms available for students in two languages.
Delivery methods	Content is delivered in multiple modes so it is accessible to students with a wide range of abilities, interests, and previous experiences.	Provide a full range of audiovisual enhancement, including wireless headsets, captioned video, audiotaped read-along books, typed lecture notes, and study guides.
Information access	Use of simple, intuitive, and consistent formats	Ensure that information is both understandable and complete; reduce unnecessary complexity; highlight essential text; give clear criteria for tests and assignments.
Interaction	Accessible to everyone, without accommodation; use of multiple ways for students to participate	Set up both heterogeneous groups (across second-language ability levels) and homogeneous groups (same-language ability level); instruct students on how to secure a conversational turn.
Feedback	Effective prompting during an activity and constructive comments after the assignment is complete	Employ formative assessment for ongoing feedback.
Demonstration of knowledge	Provision for multiple ways students demonstrate knowledge—group work, demonstrations, portfolios, and presentations	Offer different modes to all students so that English learners are not the only ones with alternatives.

With an augmented emphasis on learning styles and other learner differences, UDL promotes access to information, resources, and tools for students with a wide range of abilities, disabilities, ethnic backgrounds, language skills, and learning styles. Samuels (2016) notes,

... the strategy encompasses a wide set of teaching techniques, allowing multiple ways for teachers to present information and for students to engage in lessons and demonstrate what they know. A universally designed lesson, for example, might include audiovisual components, illustrations, traditional lectures, enlarged print, or glossaries so that students can have easy access to unfamiliar terms (p. 1).

Table 4.7 offers an overview of the principles of UDL and some suggested applications of these principles in the education of English learners. UDL does not imply that one universal strategy fits all but rather that a diversity of opportunities will work for many different students.

The recommended model for delivery of ELD is to integrate it with content instruction in a classroom in which the English learner has access to native speakers of English as language models. However, because the English learner is still acquiring basic English skills, ELD instruction cannot provide grade-level-appropriate content. To accomplish this, academic instruction and ELD must go hand in hand. This is further discussed in Chapter 5.

Parental Rights and Communicating with Families

“Strong parent involvement is one factor that research has shown time and time again to have positive effects on academic achievement and school attitudes” (Ovando & Collier, 1998, p. 270). Yet, for various reasons on the part of both schools and communities, parent involvement has sometimes been an elusive goal. The growing number of English learners in the school system, however, clearly requires that efforts continue to establish communication, develop partnerships, and involve parents, families, and communities.

Fortunately, during the past decade successful programs have been developed and various guidelines have become available to help school personnel, parents, and communities work together to ensure parental rights, family involvement, successful programs, and school–community partnerships that benefit students. Schools have expectations for parents and family members that parents will supervise homework completion, show up for open house night, help in school fundraisers, and so forth. That isn’t always possible for families who struggle with day-to-day financial, health, or employment strain. In fact, many researchers call for schools’ involvement with families rather than the reverse. This means that school authorities become aware of families’ issues at home and intervene in remediating difficult circumstances by helping with referrals to community agencies, striving to find optimal times and ways for families to communicate teachers and administrators, and helping to provide resources to supplement parents and family members’ efforts to assist with homework. This is a new stance to take on the expectations families and schools have of one another.

Parental Rights

Parents have numerous rights that educators must respect and honor in spite of the challenges they may present to the school. These include (1) the right of their children to a free, appropriate public education; (2) the right to receive information concerning education decisions and actions in the language parents comprehend; (3) the right to make informed decisions and to authorize consent before changes in educational placement occur; (4) the right to be included in discussions and plans concerning disciplinary action toward their children; (5) the right to appeal actions when they do not agree; and (6) the right to participate in meetings organized for public and parent information (Young & Helvie, 1996).

Parents have the right to choose the language-development program options for their children (e.g., waiver process) and have the right to be contacted about such rights in an appropriate and effective medium (e.g., bilingual phone calls, home visits, primary-language materials, videos). The *Williams et al. v. State of California et al.* remedies offer several mechanisms by which parents can exert more influence on school procedures.

A fundamental right that all parents have is support in school for the home language. To deny access to native-language literacy exploits minorities (Cummins, 1989). It is important that teachers help families understand the advantages that bilingualism provides to the individual, connecting students to their heritage culture; adding a cognitive dimension by expanding and deepening students’ thinking; and, later in life, expanding career opportunities. Family support for bilingualism helps to establish expectations for high academic performance in two languages (Molina, Hanson, & Siegel, 1997). Chapter 10 continues this definition of family involvement.

School–Community Partnerships

In addition to developing partnerships with parents, schools are reaching toward communities for help in educating all children. Community-based organizations (CBOs)—groups committed to helping people obtain health, education, and other basic human services—are assisting students in ways that go beyond traditional schooling. School–CBO partnerships support students’ academic achievement by working with parents and families, tutoring students in their first language, developing students’ leadership skills and higher education goals, and providing information and support on issues such as health care, pregnancy, gang involvement, and so on.

Communities can foster a climate of support for English learners by featuring articles in local newspapers and newsletters about these students’ achievements in the schools and prizes they have won, by sponsoring literature and art exhibitions that feature students’ work, and by publishing their stories written in both languages. Students can be invited to the local library to offer their stories, books, and poetry to other students, again in both English and the primary language. In this way, support for bilingualism and bilingual education programs is orchestrated in the community at large. Working with families and communities is further detailed in Chapter 10.



Many people feel that any tolerance of linguistic diversity undermines national unity. However, others hold the view of the United States as a “salad bowl,” which features a mixture of distinct textures and tastes, instead of a “melting pot,” in which cultural and linguistic diversity is melted into one collective culture and language. The best educational programs for English learners are explicitly bicultural as well so that students’ native cultures and heritage languages can be fostered. With these programs in place, the United States will benefit from the rich language resources of all its people.

This page intentionally left blank



English-Language Literacy Development, Lesson Planning, and Specially Designed Content Instruction in English

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter, you should be able to . . .

- Plan instruction for English-language development (ELD) and content classes based on ELD and content standards;
- Employ strategies to teach based on specially designed academic instruction in English;
- Draw upon materials to teach that are linguistically and culturally appropriate;
- Describe examples of content classes that are modified for linguistically and culturally diverse (CLD) learners;
- Explore how teachers can direct learners to instruction outside the classroom; and
- Profile a teacher who is committed to the success of CLD learners.

Why Adapt Content Instruction for English Learners?

The greatest challenge in teaching today is to communicate content in English to students whose English is under development. Research has shown that students learn best in their primary language; but in most U. S. schools, primary-language instruction is not an option. Students today are expected to learn not only English but also science, mathematics, social studies, and other subjects in English. How is this possible?

English learners can succeed in content-area classes taught in English if the instruction is systematically modified so that teachers can make academic content more accessible to learners.

If learners can follow and understand a lesson, they can learn content material, and the content-area instruction—if modified to include English-language development (ELD)—becomes the means for acquiring English. Basically, specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE) addresses the following needs of English learners: (1) to learn grade-appropriate content, (2) to master English vocabulary and grammar, (3) to learn “academic” English, and (4) to develop strategies for learning how to learn.

SDAIE comprises a set of techniques for adapting instruction for English learners (Note: SDAIE is also referred to as “sheltered instruction,” see Echevarría and Graves, 2011). For English learners, ELD instruction is guided by a careful progression through the ELD standards, eventually to transition to English-language-arts (ELA) standards (or, in the case of dual-immersion schools, standards in two languages); and SDAIE is used to make academic instruction comprehensible. Without ELD and SDAIE, English learners may be mainstreamed without access to the curriculum—the “sink-or-swim” approach. Sadly, in this case, too many “sink.”

According to Gersten and Baker (2000), a high-quality ELD program should include three components: development of proficiency and fluency in social and academic English; explicit instruction in grammar, including such formal aspects as tense agreement, use of plurals, and word order in sentences; and content learning merged with English acquisition.

Ideally, ELD is not confined to one period of the school day but is instead a part of content-area instruction. Each content area has a specialized knowledge base, vocabulary (consider, for example, the different meanings of *foot* in mathematics, biology, geography, furniture construction, poetry, and theater), and particular graphic and verbal means for organizing information. Each content area has standards guiding curriculum development that must be addressed along with ELD standards. Table 5.1 offers suggestions for implementing ELD in a variety of ways across the curriculum.

Using content area standards as the basis for content instruction combined with level-specific ELD standards ensures organized, systematic, explicit progress in language proficiency. A language-rich environment adds literacy to meaningful and purposeful instruction in key content knowledge and skills, integrating listening, speaking, reading, and writing with content objectives.

Instructional Planning and Organization for ELD and SDAIE

When instruction is delivered in English and the student has not achieved advanced proficiency in English, a fundamental chasm undermines learning. This gulf between instruction and comprehension cannot be bridged by reducing the standards of expectation for the student—it

TABLE 5.1 Examples of English-Language Development in Content Areas

Facet of Literacy Development	Examples
Creating a language-rich environment	Teachers can provide new experiences that arouse interest in and attention to a topic: field trips, guest speakers, fiction and nonfiction films, experiments, classroom discovery centers, music and songs, poetry and other literature, computer simulations, and so on.
Meaningful and purposeful activities	After students have had the opportunity to learn new literacy material in a meaningful way, they can transform that knowledge through other means, such as illustrating, dramatizing, creating songs, dancing, rewriting stories. Students can share their learning in a variety of ways—in learning centers; through dramatic, visual, or oral presentations; by staging a reader's theater; by developing slide, video, or computer-based audiovisual shows; or through maps and graphs.
Using standards-based thematic unit organization	After demonstrating the basic tools associated with mathematics (rulers, protractors, calculators, computers, etc.), the teacher provides students with a real-life opportunity to use them. Students are told that the classroom needs to be recarpeted. They first have to estimate the area, then check their estimates with the actual tools (using both standard and metric measuring instruments), and then use calculators to find the percentage of error in their estimates. This fits with ELD standards relating to negotiating/initiating oral activities.
Selecting appropriate reading materials	Teachers can choose to have one primary content source or a package of content-related materials (chapters from various texts, video- and audiotapes, magazine and newspaper articles, encyclopedia entries, literary selections, Internet sources, software programs, etc.). Regardless of what is chosen, the teacher must consider two main criteria: Are the content objectives for the lesson adequately presented by the material? Is the material comprehensible to English learners?
Providing organized, systematic, explicit instruction in key skills	Students identify key words in mathematics problem solving and determine how other words are linked to the key words. For example, in the problem "The sum of two numbers is 77. If the first number is ten times the other, find the number," students need to know they are dealing with two different numbers.
Adapting instruction and materials for English learners	Some learners may need special textual material, such as excerpts taken from textbooks, advance organizers for the text that highlight the key topics and concepts in outline form, focus questions, concept maps, or tape-recorded text passages.
Integrating listening, speaking, reading, and writing	During the first week of the solar system unit, the names of the planets were tossed into a hat. Each of eight pairs of native-English-speaking and English-learning students selected one planet and developed a poster session about their planet based on resources in the school library. After each pair presented their planet, the teacher combined pairs into small groups. Each group was to create a ninth planet based on what they had learned and present that planet to the class.

must be overcome by adapting instruction to the student's second-language-acquisition level by using SDAIE. This chapter addresses pedagogy for English learners by focusing on SDAIE-enhanced curriculum design and lesson delivery, cognitive academic language proficiency, and use of learning strategies as core elements in teaching ELD and content area knowledge.

SDAIE is an approach used in multilingual content classrooms to provide language support to students while they are learning academic subjects. This can take place either in mainstream classes made up of native-English speakers mixed with nonnative English speakers

of intermediate proficiency or in classes consisting solely of nonnative speakers who operate at similar English proficiency levels (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2016). Ideally, SDAIE is one component in a program for English learners that includes ELD instruction, primary-language instruction in content areas (so that students continue at grade level as they learn English), and content-based ELD classes.

Planning affords teachers the opportunity to adapt lessons for English learners so instruction is understandable and interactive. An SDAIE lesson plan follows a fairly predictable format. Box 5.1 describes the five main elements of a SDAIE lesson.

SDAIE combines second-language-acquisition principles with elements of quality teaching so students can improve listening, speaking, reading, and writing as they study an academic subject. SDAIE is the preferred method used by both middle and high schools when primary-language instruction is not available or is offered in only one primary language.

Instead of organizing this chapter by content area—treating only mathematics in its own section, for example—this material is organized by the main parts of the SDAIE lesson. By viewing the same SDAIE principle across several content domains, it is easier to grasp the concept.

Careful planning and a well-organized classroom, combined with effective teaching, are keys to success for English learners. The cycle of instruction consists of the following five phases: (1) The teacher becomes familiar with the characteristics of the students (age, grade level, language-acquisition level); (2) the teacher plans instruction using state and local curriculum standards and textbooks as guides; (3) the teacher delivers instruction using formative assessment to monitor progress; (4) the teacher employs summative assessment to give grades and make information available about student progress; and (5) the teacher reflects.

This cycle is repeated throughout the school year. Based on assessment data, the teacher modifies instruction for the class as a whole or for individual students, groups and regroups students, and acquires additional resources as needed. Over this entire classroom-based cycle is

BOX 5.1

Fundamental Elements of the SDAIE Lesson Plan

I. Setting objectives

Content objectives: Subject-matter knowledge goals linked to grade-level standards
(Content objectives include mastery of content vocabulary)

English-language development (ELD) objectives aligned with ELD standards

Productive: speaking, writing

Receptive: listening, reading

Learning-strategy objectives: Direct instruction to augment long-term cognitive, metacognitive, or social-affective abilities

II. Preparing modified materials

III. Differentiated instruction

Bridging: Accessing and building prior knowledge

Access to cognitive academic language

SDAIE techniques

Scaffolding: Temporary support for learning

Guided and independent practice that promotes students' active language use

Formative assessment and reteaching

IV. Summative assessment of objectives

V. Reflective pedagogy

the specter of standardized testing, which reports to the community at large, including federal, state, and local authorities, sometimes with the threat of dire consequences to the school if expectations are not met. This is the contemporary context for planning and instructional delivery.

Planning for Standards-Based ELD and Content Instruction

Lesson planning involves the careful design of content, language, and learning-strategy objectives and the selection, modification, and organization of materials and text that support those objectives. Objectives are necessary to guide teaching—a lesson with a clear objective focuses instruction by concentrating on a particular goal and guides the teacher to select learning activities that accomplish the goal. Once objectives are clearly stated, the teacher selects materials and designs activities that will help students achieve those objectives. Finally, assessment provides evidence that learning has, or has not, taken place.

Considerations When Planning When planning instruction, a teacher takes various factors into consideration. First, what do I know about my students—what does their grade level predict about their developmental abilities, including the reading, writing, speaking, and listening that students can normally perform at this grade level? What is the level of their English proficiency? What are their interests? What prior knowledge do they have on the topic? How can their cultural background(s) and home language(s) contribute to the lesson?

Second, what content standards apply? How do my content objectives align with these standards? Third, what language objectives are appropriate in line with the literacy requirements of the content area, taking into consideration the ELD framework? Do I need to differentiate the language objectives according to various levels of proficiency of my students?

Lastly, what learning-strategy objectives will be useful in the lesson? What strategies do students already have that they can draw upon, and how can learning strategies, including critical thinking skills, be integrated with students' cultural perspectives? (See Quiocho and Ulanoff, 2009.)

Objectives What is a lesson objective? The objective states, in behavioral terms, what the student will be capable of doing at the close of the lesson. Such verbs as *contrast*, *identify*, *list*, *summarize*, *compare*, *predict*, *survey*, and *outline* are specific, describing a behavior that can be measured or has a tangible product. In contrast, such verbs as *learn*, *look at*, *evaluate*, *think about*, *know*, *review*, and *become aware* are not specific or measurable. Moreover, some verbs do not specify a goal but merely a process or activity. Such terms as *listen to*, *reflect*, *practice*, and *work in groups* describe activities, not goals. Hence it is difficult to measure what is accomplished. In contrast, *draw*, *map*, *record data*, *plan*, or *punctuate* are terms that result in a product that can be assessed.

Knowledge and language cannot be separated—language is the brain's input device, whether verbal or figural (pictures, numbers, graphs). Content instruction (mathematics, social studies, literature, science, physical education, visual arts, music, and performance arts) takes place using language as the medium, so language objectives are an integral part of content instruction. To maintain grade-level content objectives and sustain academic expectations for achievement, both language and content objectives are included in SDAIE lessons. Moreover, the current emphasis on cognitive teaching mandates that learning-strategy objectives be included as well. This gives every SDAIE lesson a three-part focus.

- *Content objective.* Knowledge, skill, or disposition in a subject area or domain of communicative competence

- *Language-development objective.* Knowledge or skill in some facet of English
- *Learning-strategy objective.* Knowledge, skill, or learning strategy that teaches the student how to acquire or process information

Objectives can include more than one content area. Middle school as well as elementary school instruction increasingly features thematic units that integrate content areas. The teacher considers the various tasks that language users must be able to perform in the unit (listening, speaking, reading, writing) and makes provisions for students to learn the vocabulary and concepts needed in the discourse of the content areas involved.

Objectives and Standards How are objectives chosen? Schools, school districts, or state agencies publish standards documents that spell out what students should know and be able to do. These furnish goals for each grade. A classroom teacher plans instruction using curriculum guides at the specific grade level. Units may be organized based on a theme or, if the course is text-driven, based on chapters in the text (instructional planning is presented in greater detail later in this chapter). Units or chapters are further divided into specific lessons containing the essential content area objectives. The classroom teacher is responsible for presenting the material in an understandable way, arranging for students to participate in learning activities, and then measuring the extent of the students' mastery of the material. Thus, instruction and assessment are linked.

The chosen objectives must be matched to specific performance that students will demonstrate. This is central to the contemporary focus on accountability because the specific performance expected of the student as a learning outcome can be directly linked to some standard for the performance. Together, these constitute *standards-based learning*.

A standard becomes useful to teachers only when they can identify when the standard has been met or progress is being made toward meeting it. Moreover, when schools communicate performance standards to students, students know what is considered important for them to accomplish, and they can judge where they stand in relation to the standard. Students must be prepared to receive targeted feedback in a way that encourages them to compare their work with specific standards. Assessment should provide information on what students already do well and pinpoint what they still need to learn; this provides information about aspects of instruction that need to be redesigned (Jametz, 1994).

Content Standards Each content domain has standards suggested by the professional organization that represents expertise in the field, such as the National Council for the Social Studies, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM), and National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE). In turn, the state departments of education (such as the California Department of Education) incorporate these standards into state content standards, designed to define the knowledge, concepts, and skills that students should acquire at each grade level. These are in turn incorporated into curriculum frameworks (blueprints for implementing the content standards) that are then used by individual school districts to determine what instructors in each grade level should teach. When these goals are met, standardized testing should provide evidence that students are learning.

Standards-Based Content Objectives The teacher first specifies learning goals using standards documents, usually in the form of school district curriculum programs. The teacher divides the overall goals for the year into units, then into specific lessons, and then into the content area objectives for each lesson.

Table 5.2 displays content domains, typical content standards topics, and matching objectives. The idea is to accomplish one content objective in one lesson.

In developing their sequence of content objectives, teachers want to keep two important questions in mind: (1) Have I reviewed the objectives for the year and organized them for thematic flow? (2) Have I considered the sequence of objectives and rearranged them, if necessary, putting more concrete concepts before more abstract ones (i.e., those that can be taught with hands-on materials, visuals, and demonstrations before those that are difficult to demonstrate or that require more oral or written skills)?

TABLE 5.2 Content Domains, Content Standards, Typical Topics, and Matching Objectives

Content Domains	Content Standard	Typical Topic	Matching Objective
Mathematics	(Gr. 7) (Algebra and Functions). Students express quantitative relationships by using algebraic expressions, equations, inequalities, and graphs.	Finding the unknown	Identify orally or in writing the pre-algebra concept of finding the unknown.
Social Studies	(Gr. 6) (World History and Geography: Ancient Civilizations). Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the early civilizations of Mesopotamia, Egypt, and Kush.	Religion of Egypt	Identify Egyptian gods from tomb paintings.
Literature	(Gr. 11 & 12) (Literary Response and Analysis). Analyze ways in which poets use imagery, personification, figures of speech, and sounds to evoke readers' emotions.	Analyze poem	Analyze "We Real Cool" by Gwendolyn Brooks (Brooks, 1944) for plot, language, and theme.
Science	(Gr. 1) (Life Sciences). 2b. Students know both plants and animals need water, animals need food, and plants need light.	Plants need light	Expose plants to different conditions of light to observe consequences.
Physical Education	(High School) (Physical Education). Develop and implement a one-month personal physical fitness plan.	Personal physical fitness	Compare two kinds of exercise that could become part of a one-month personal physical fitness plan.
Visual Arts	(Gr. 4) (Aesthetic Valuing). Describe how using the language of the visual arts helps to clarify personal responses to works of art.	Interpreting a painting	Compare personal responses to Picasso's <i>Las Meninas</i> with Renoir's <i>The Luncheon of the Boating Party at Bougival</i> .
Music	(Gr. 5) (Historical and Cultural Context). Identify different or similar uses of musical elements in music from diverse cultures.	Comparing music from different cultures	Contrast the use of drums in three cultural contexts: Brazil, Nigeria, and the United States.
Performance Arts	(Gr. 3) (Creative Expression). Create for classmates simple scripts that demonstrate knowledge of basic blocking and stage areas.	Staging a play	In groups, students will act out a scene from the Chinese fable <i>The Magic Sieve</i> .

(Note: These feature sample standards only. To find comparable standards, search the website of the Department of Education in your state)



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Matching an Objective to a Standard

Emil Chantal's fourth-grade class read *Amelia's Road* (Altman, 1993) as a tie-in for studying the regions of the state of California where certain crops grow. He based the class's approach to reading this text on the Reading Standards for Literature Grade 4 contained in the California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects (2010, p. 12): "Students will refer to details and examples in a text when explaining what the text says explicitly and when drawing inferences from the text."

The content objective for this lesson was "Using a map of California, link regions and crops to the plot of *Amelia's Road*." Using a map of California's major vegetable production regions (http://score.rims.k12.ca.us/score_lessons/amelia_road/map.html), students located where Amelia was born, as well as the locations described in the book. On a study sheet, they also answered questions such as "What grew in the area in which Amelia went to school?"

Language Standards The California ELD Standards (California Department of Education, 2012) require that English learners develop proficiency in both the English language and the concepts and skills contained in the English language arts (ELA) content standards (California Department of Education, 2010). Like the ELA standards, the California ELD standards are organized in areas of reading, writing, and listening/speaking. The California English Language Development Test is aligned with the standards as a placement and achievement test. Using the ELD and ELA standards, teachers can work with students through a developmental framework that stipulates the requirements of each proficiency level.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Language Standards

In a content-based intermediate/advanced ELD high school social studies class, standards-based instruction was incorporated into the unit Exploring World Religions. Students created a word web journal to define religion; used reading passages and journals combined with discussions about religion; and read library and Internet research to identify important religious figures. Final portfolios were used to archive students' essays and other writings. Through the unit, note-taking skills, outlines, timelines, maps, games, and other knowledge technologies were incorporated into group research, oral presentations, paragraph writing, and grammar work.

Source: Adapted from Riles & Lenarcic, 2000

Content-Related Language-Development Objectives The language-development objectives of an SDAIE lesson are drawn from the ELD standards. Because students in a class are usually at various SLA levels—even a single student usually scores at different SLA levels

on listening/speaking, reading, and writing—the teacher plans for differentiated instruction by incorporating more than one level of language skill in each lesson. The language objective must also address the language needed to accomplish the content objective. In other words, if the lesson features a science laboratory objective, the language objective is integrated with laboratory activity—for example, making observations orally and recording data by writing in a lab manual.

The CALLA Handbook (Chamot, 2009) is a valuable resource for helping teachers understand the language demands of various disciplines. Each of the chief subjects—science, mathematics, social studies, and literature and composition—is the focus of a chapter in which the authors specifically address its language demands.

Table 5.3 illustrates the alignment of content and language-development objectives for two ELD levels. This demonstrates differentiated instruction.

In reviewing language objectives, teachers should keep the following questions in mind:

- What is the concept load of the unit and what are the key concepts to demonstrate and illustrate?
- What are the structures and discourse of the discipline and are these included in the language objectives?
- Are all four language modes included in the planning (listening, speaking, reading, writing)?

TABLE 5.3 Content and Language Objectives for Two ELD Levels in Two Content Areas

Content Standard	Content Objective	Language Standards	Language-Development Objectives
<i>Life Sciences (Grade 1)</i>			
Students know both plants and animals need water; animals need food, and plants need light.	Expose plants to different conditions of light to observe consequences.	(Beginning). Responds to simple directions and questions using physical actions. (Intermediate). Participates in instructional conversations using expanded vocabulary.	(Beginning). Working in a group, students will follow verbal directions to set up a plant light exposure experiment. (Intermediate). Students will discuss in a group how to set up an observation sheet for plant light exposure experiment.
<i>Physical Education (High School)</i>			
Develop and implement a one-month personal physical fitness plan.	Compare two kinds of exercise that could become part of a one-month personal physical fitness plan.	(Early Intermediate). Uses writing to convey meaning. (Early Advanced). Produces independent writing using consistent grammatical forms, mechanics, and word order.	(Early Intermediate). Students will list three reasons for and three reasons against two types of exercise for their personal fitness plan. (Early Advanced). Students will write a comparison paragraph giving three reasons for and three reasons against two types of exercise for their personal fitness plan.

(Note: These feature sample standards only. To find comparable standards, search the website of the Department of Education in your state)



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Planning for SDAIE Science

In a sheltered (SDAIE) seventh-grade science class, students improve their English language skills while studying about the universe. The teacher's primary goal is for students to understand the content materials (in this case, about the origin of the universe). But she also spends some time helping students with language-related issues (e.g., academic vocabulary, reading skills) that pertain to the science unit they are studying. The exposure to higher-level language (through the content materials) and the explicit focus on language issues by the teacher set the stage for successful language acquisition.

Source: Adapted from Brinton, 2003, p. 203

Strategic Learning The cognitive revolution in learning turned the spotlight on how people transform, elaborate, store, and recover information. According to the cognitive view, people are active learners who initiate experiences, seek out information, and reorganize what they already know to achieve new insights, pursue goals, solve personally relevant problems, and attempt to make sense of the world.

Cognitive training includes the use of learning strategies, study skills, memory enhancement, text-processing competencies, note taking, research techniques, test-taking abilities, problem solving, transfer, graphic organizers, and information processing tips, as well as learning the characteristics of the brain. A cognitivist view of learning means teaching students *how* to learn.

Teachers motivate students best when they provide course activities and projects that tap students' natural abilities and interests and develop their confidence in their ability to think. Teachers who ask thought-provoking questions and use concrete examples, activities, and demonstrations stimulate students' imaginations and develop their critical thinking skills. This includes metacognition in the form of cognitive self-knowledge (multiple intelligences, learning styles), goal setting, planning, self-monitoring, and self-evaluating.

Learning-Strategy Objectives A cognitive lesson needs one or more learning-strategy objectives, which can be defined as the achievement or practice of direct or indirect strategies that facilitate acquiring new skills or information (Díaz-Rico, 2013). Learning strategies can be distinguished from content objectives by a simple test: Can the objective be applied outside the specific lesson? Is it a skill that can be used again and again as part of a learner's "mental toolkit"?

Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) Learning strategies are being recognized more and more as an integral part of teaching, an idea made explicit in Chamot's Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) (2009). CALLA, designed for English learners at the early intermediate to advanced levels of English-language proficiency, incorporates explicit teaching of learning strategies within academic subject areas. The CALLA model includes three components: topics from the major content subjects, the development of academic language skills, and explicit instruction in learning strategies for both content and language acquisition (Chamot, 2009).

BEST PRACTICE**Helping Students Develop a Personal Set of Learning Strategies**

Students can become aware of, and acquire, learning strategies in the following ways:

- The teacher can demonstrate several ways to solve a problem and encourage students to choose which works best for them.
- Various students can describe how they solved a problem and show the rest of the class.
- Teachers can encourage students to acquire multiple strategies and use whichever suits the problem at hand.
- Direct instruction of problem-solving algorithms or methods can help students to be faster and more flexible in their strategy use.

Direct instruction in learning strategies includes three types: *metacognitive*, *cognitive*, and *social-affective*. The metacognitive strategies help students to plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning processes. Teachers help students learn to preview the main concepts in material to be learned, plan the key ideas that must be expressed orally or in writing, decide in advance what specific information must be attended to, check comprehension during listening or reading, and judge how well learning has been accomplished when the lesson is completed.

**CLASSROOM GLIMPSE****Think-Alouds as Metacognition**

Mrs. Barr, a first-grade teacher, verbalizes her thoughts aloud to show students how she experiences reading comprehension. "I always model a think-aloud before asking anything from students," she says. Then students try it with a partner before sharing their thoughts with the whole group. Finally she asks students to write down what they are thinking, so she can assess how they use this metacognitive strategy.

Source: Adapted from Herrera, Pérez, & Escamilla, 2010, p. 142

Cognitive strategies include using reference materials resourcefully; taking effective notes; summarizing material adequately; applying rules of induction or inference; remembering information using visual images, auditory representation, or elaboration of associations to new knowledge; transferring prior skills to assist comprehension; and grouping new concepts, words, or terms understandably. Social-affective strategies teach how to elicit needed clarification, how to work cooperatively with peers in problem solving, and how to use mental techniques or self-talk to reduce anxiety and increase a sense of personal competency.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Learning-Strategy Objectives

The high school ELD classroom just received three new computers. Mrs. O'Dale knew that several students had computers at home, but nevertheless she wanted to make sure that all the students had basic word-processing skills. Before beginning a unit on autobiography, she identified a set of skills that are useful in word processing. In addition to such content objectives as identifying a topic, including descriptive details, and using time sequence connectors, each lesson in the writing unit would have an objective relating to word processing, beginning with saving and retrieving files, moving text within a file, and spellchecking. Thus, the acquisition of computer skills became learning-strategy objectives.

Skillful lesson planning includes integrating content, learning-strategy, and language-development objectives. A unit on bacteria would include a learning-strategy objective on the use of microscopes and a language objective relating to writing a brief summary (of laboratory observations). In contrast, a social studies lesson would use the reading selection as content but a comprehension-enhancing technique such as “using a cause-and-effect organizer” as a learning strategy.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Integrating Three Types of Objectives

The Most Beautiful Place in the World is an instructional unit based on the book by the same title (Cameron, 1988) about a young boy in Guatemala who longs to attend school and learn to read (Levine, 2000). Levine found that the Spanish words, foods, and other cultural aspects incorporated in the novel were particularly appropriate for her students, who were all from Spanish-speaking families. The unit also integrated social studies curricular goals as students studied map locations, compass directions, and cultural comparisons.

A Model for SDAIE

A model for SDAIE originally developed at the Los Angeles Unified School District in 1993 had four components—*content*, *connections*, *comprehensibility*, and *interaction*. Often, however, teachers could be technically proficient in many of the SDAIE elements yet not be successful with English learners. Discussion and observation revealed that the teacher's attitude played such a critical part in the success of the class that it needed to be explicitly incorporated into the model. Therefore, teacher attitude was added as an overarching component (see Figure 5.1). This model has been the foundation for the SIOP model.

Teachers often find that they do not use every aspect of the model in every lesson, but by working within the overall frame they are more assured of providing appropriate learning opportunities for their English learners. The following sections explain and illustrate each of the five SDAIE components.

FIGURE 5.1 A Model of the Components of Successful SDAIE Instruction**Teacher Attitude**

The teacher is open and willing to learn from students.

Content

Lessons include subject, language, and learning-strategy objectives.
Material is selected, adapted, and organized with language learners in mind.

Comprehensibility

Lessons include explicit strategies that aid understanding:

- Contextualization
- Modeling
- Teacher speech adjustment
- Frequent comprehension checks through strategies and appropriate questioning
- Repetition and paraphrase

Connections

Curriculum is connected to students' background and experiences.

Interaction

Students have frequent opportunities to

- Talk about lesson content
- Clarify concepts in their home language
- Represent learning through a variety of ways

Teacher Attitude Teachers are no different from the rest of the population when faced with something new or different. Many recoil, dig in their heels, and refuse to change. But teachers have also chosen to work with people, and they frequently find delight and satisfaction in their students' work, behavior, and learning. It is this sense of delight that is important to capture in working with all learners, particularly English learners.

Three aspects characterize a successful attitude in working with second-language learners:

- Teachers believe that all students can learn.
- Teachers are willing to nurture language development.
- Teachers recognize that a person's self-concept is involved in his or her own language and that at times students need to use that language.

BEST PRACTICE**Summarizing Positive Teacher Attitudes**

To set a positive tone for English learners, skilled ELD teachers do the following:

- Set up attractive learning environments for the English learners, using colorful, student-friendly classroom displays (some incorporating the home language(s))
- Create an atmosphere in the classroom that helps English learners integrate into the life of the school, such as pairing each English learner with a buddy
- Encourage intercultural friendships by inviting non-ELD teachers to make cross-language student pairing at lunch
- Find ways to lower English learners' anxiety by the use of home-language music and pictures of life in the native culture(s) of the students.

Content in SDAIE *Content objectives* are necessary to guide teaching. A lesson with a clear objective focuses the instruction by concentrating on a particular goal and guides the teacher to select learning activities that accomplish the goal. Teachers may have to be selective in choosing only the most essential content standards to address in the time allotted.

BEST PRACTICE

Organizing Content for the Theme of “Acculturation”

Content materials for the social studies theme “acculturation” might include primary documents, personal histories, and literature. Students who research specific concepts related to acculturation, such as immigration assimilation, culture shock, job opportunities, or naturalization, may find that each document features a unique voice. A government document presents a formal, official point of view, whereas a personal or family story conveys the subject from a different, more intimate perspective. In addition, numerous pieces of literature, such as Eve Bunting’s *How Many Days to America?* (1988) or Laurence Yep’s *Dragonwings* (1975), offer yet other points of view.

Connections in SDAIE Students engage in learning when they recognize a connection between what they know and the learning experience. Therefore, a critical element of the SDAIE lesson is the deliberate plan on the teacher’s part to elicit information from and help make connections for the students. This can be accomplished in several ways: through *bridging*—linking concepts and skills to student experiences or eliciting/using examples from students’ lives—and by *schema building*—using scaffolding strategies to link new learning to old.

Comprehensibility in SDAIE A key factor in learning is being able to understand. Through all phases of a lesson, the teacher ensures that students have plenty of clues to understanding. This is one of the aspects of SDAIE that makes it different from mainstream instruction. Teachers are aware that they need to present concepts in a variety of ways. They increase the comprehensibility of lessons in four ways: *contextualization* (strategies that augment speech and/or text through pictures, realia, dramatizations, etc.); *modeling* (demonstration of the skill or concept to be learned); *speech adjustment* (strategies to adjust speech from the customary native speech patterns); and *comprehension checks* (strategies to monitor listening and reading comprehension). Table 5.4 provides a list of both object and human resources that can help contextualize classroom content.

Interaction in SDAIE The organization of discourse is important for language acquisition in content classes. In “teacher-fronted” classrooms, the teacher takes the central role in controlling the flow of information, and students compete for the teacher’s attention and for permission to speak. More recent research, however, points to the role of the learner in negotiating, managing, even manipulating conversations to receive more comprehensible input. Instead of English learners being dependent on their ability to understand the teacher’s explanations and directions, classrooms that feature flexible grouping patterns permit students to have greater access to the flow of information.

TABLE 5.4 Media, Realia, Manipulatives, and Human Resources to Contextualize Lessons

Object Resources	Human Resources
Picture files	Cooperative groups
Maps and globes	Pairs
Charts and posters	Cross-age tutors
Printed material:	Heterogeneous groups
Illustrated books	Community resource people
Pamphlets	School resource people
News articles	Parents
Catalogs	Pen pals (adult and child)
Magazines	Keypals
Puzzles	
Science equipment	
Manipulatives:	
M&Ms	
Buttons	
Tongue depressors	
Gummy bears	
Costumes	
Computer software	
Internet	

The teacher orchestrates tasks so that students use language in academic ways. Students are placed in different groups for different activities. Teachers themselves work with small groups to achieve specific instructional objectives (e.g., in literature response groups, as discussed in Chapter 7, or in instructional conversations, discussed in Chapters 2 and 6).

In planning for interaction in the SDAIE lesson, the teacher considers opportunities for students to talk about key concepts, expects that students may clarify the concepts in their primary language, and allows a variety of means through which students can demonstrate their understanding.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Interaction

In one fifth-grade class, the students produced a news program with a U.S. Civil War setting. The program included the show’s anchors; reporters in the field interviewing generals, soldiers, and citizens; a weather report; and reports on sports, economics, and political conditions. There were even commercial breaks. The students engaged in much research to be historically accurate, but enthusiasm was high as they shared their knowledge in a format they knew and understood. In addition, students were able to work in the area of their particular interest.

SDAIE offers English learners an important intermediate step between content instruction in the primary language, an environment in which they may not advance in English skills, and a “sink-or-swim” immersion, in which they may not learn key content-related concepts. In most effective instruction for English learners, ELD methods and SDAIE are used together to provide language development and achievement of core content standards for English learners, depending on the program model used and the specific needs of the students.

Teaching with SDAIE Strategies

English learners need support to enable them to successfully complete tasks that require academic language proficiency. SDAIE means a curriculum that teaches content first and English second. Whereas ELD classes focus on English-language acquisition at the student’s proficiency level, SDAIE classes focus on teaching the same content curriculum (English literature, science, history) as the regular courses, with added support materials and alternative ways for students to acquire knowledge. In this way, students can understand and keep pace with the mainstream curriculum.

SDAIE strategies include increasing the use of cooperative learning, activating connections to students’ previous knowledge, differentiating instruction to meet the needs of students with varying learning styles, promoting cognitive academic language proficiency, modifying instructional delivery without simplification, furnishing scaffolding (temporary support for instruction), providing graphic organizers, and providing assessment to promote learning and reflection. These strategies are addressed in the following pages, followed by examples in such content areas as language arts, social studies, math, science, music, and visual and performing arts.

Lesson plans in science using the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) model for SDAIE can be found in Short, Vogt, and Echevarría (2011). SIOP plans for mathematics are found in Echevarría, Vogt, and Short (2016).

Cooperative Learning

Many teachers include opportunities for discussion about key concepts, ensuring that students have numerous conversational partners and occasions to interact with the content of lessons. A noncompetitive environment can be established through cooperative-learning activities, both formally and informally structured. Heterogeneous groups encourage language development as students talk about learning experiences with one another.

Material presented in a mainstream class may be difficult for English learners if the topics are cognitively complex and highly language dependent. Using cooperative learning, English learners have increased opportunities to verify their comprehension by receiving explanations from their peers and sharing prior knowledge. This helps them clarify and familiarize themselves with the lesson content.

Probably more was written on cooperative and collaborative learning in the last twenty years of the twentieth century than in all the previous history of education. David and Robert Johnson, Robert Slavin, and others advocated the use of cooperative learning for elementary students. Others documented the success of cooperative learning with elementary school English learners (for example, Cohen, 1994; Johnson & Johnson, 1994) as well as with secondary school ELD students (Faltis, 1993). Other research has contributed to an extensive body of knowledge about the benefits of collaborative learning to English language development.

Benefits to English Learners Small-group learning provides English learners with a rich discourse environment and multiple opportunities for face-to-face interaction. This is particularly necessary when students must exchange information about academic content and procedures. When students are collaborating in small groups, they have substantially more chances to practice language—without worrying about whether their production is exactly right. This lowers their anxiety and lets them concentrate on the content of learning. They can hear and say key words and phrases and repeat them in a variety of ways until they feel comfortable with their language mastery. Cooperative grouping also increases the possibility that English learners will feel a part of the culture of the classroom as a whole.

Guidelines for Cooperative Learning Developing cooperative skills requires a focus in the classroom on communication and teamwork. Kluge (1999) emphasized the following elements: Group members of a group depend on one another, and no one is left out; students work in proximity to one another; group member bears full responsibility for the work performed by the group; the teacher explicitly explains and models the kind of communication and cooperation that is desired; and the group has time to reflect on how they are working together and to set group goals for improvement. From these principles, it is clear that successful collaboration depends on planning, interdependence, and groups learning how to work together.

Table 5.5 summarizes the instructional use of cooperative learning with English learners. This information represents a synthesis of tips and guidelines from Bassano and Christison (1995), Cantlon (1991), and Kagan (1998, 1999). (Sources are identified with number keys.)

Cooperative learning helps to build a sense of community in the classroom.



TABLE 5.5 Instructional Use of Cooperative Learning

Component of Cooperative Learning	Explanation or Example
Definition	“An approach to education and a repertoire of teaching strategies based on the philosophy that students can learn effectively in small groups. Cooperative learning restructures the traditional classroom into small, carefully planned learning groups to provide opportunities for all students to work together and to learn from one another.” (Source: 5, p. 3)
Rationales for using cooperative learning	Practice speaking and listening. Share information. Create things together. Learn democratic processes. Practice negotiating and compromising. (Source: 1, p. 29) Develop leadership, communication, decision making, and conflict management skills. (Source: 2) Promote real-world team skills. T ogether E veryone A chieves M ore (TEAM)! Builds positive interpersonal relations. Transcends differences (cliques). (Source: 4)
Roles in teams	Language Monitor, Task Monitor, Timekeeper, Secretary, Clarifier, Encourager, Reporter. (Source: 1, p. 29) Materials Monitor, Quiet Captain. (Source: 3)
Optimal team size	For initial start-up, dyads (teams of two) are most successful. (Source: 2) If teams of three are necessary, have them sit side by side. (Source: 2) Teams of four are ideal, small enough for active participation and split evenly for pair work. (Source: 3)
Frequency of use of cooperative structures	Minimum of three times a week; but simple structures (pair/share) can be used more often. (Source: 2)
Room and seating arrangements	Partners should sit side by side. If students are in fours, provide two sets of materials. No student's back should be to the teacher. (Source: 2)
Role of the teacher	Source of task; arranger of materials; accountable authority; partner in learning. (Source: 1)
Team composition	Heterogeneous (mixed gender, ethnicity, ability); teacher-assigned, long term; this is preferable. (Source: 3) To form heterogeneous ability groups, list students in ability from high to low (1–28), divide into quartiles, then form one group from 1, 8, 15, 22; next group 2, 9, 16, 23, etc. (Avoids highest grouped with lowest.) Random (randomly mixed ability, etc.); breaks up the monotony; short term. (Source: 3) Random teams may be a problem if all high achieving are in one group, or two students create mutual discipline problems. (Source: 2) Random grouping: Use colored marbles or slips with group numbers in a jar; group students by month of birth; count off around class. (Source: 1)

(continued)

TABLE 5.5 Instructional Use of Cooperative Learning *Continued*

Component of Cooperative Learning	Explanation or Example
Team management	Inform students how much time is allotted to task; have an agreed signal to stop working (clap pattern, ringing a bell, countdown, etc.). (Source: 2)
Rationale statement	Teacher explains why work is done in a team, what the benefits are, and what behavior is expected. (Source: 2)
Necessary group skills	Forming into groups quickly. Participating with muted voices. Establishing turn-taking routines. Involving more hesitant members in group processes. (Source: 1)
Trust building/bonding	Rapport building; discuss favorite foods, hobbies, likes, dislikes. Nonacademic fun activities: games, puzzles. Academic tasks: partner reading, checking homework together (staple papers together, teachers correct top paper). (Source: 2)
Teaching social skills	Teacher models behavior: quiet voices, taking turns, everyone participating, encouraging partner, signal to stop. (Source: 2)
Appreciation statements by peers at debriefing	“(Name), you helped the team by _____.” “(_____), you did a great job of _____.” “(_____), I appreciated it when you _____.” “(_____), you are very good at _____.” (Source: 2)
Clarification statements by peers	“I don’t understand.” “Excuse me?” “Speak more slowly, please.” “Okay?” (Source: 1, p. 29)
Procedural statements by peers	“It’s my/your/his/her turn.” “Quickly! We have four minutes.” “You first, then me.” (Source: 1, p. 29)
Peers asking for/offering help	“Are you finished?” “I need help.” “Do you need help?” (Source: 1, p. 29)
Individual accountability	Students have progress conferences with instructor. Groups are rated by teacher using monitoring chart. Groups monitor themselves periodically using rating charts. (Source: 1)
Rewards (nonmaterial); avoid message that reward involves escape from work (extra recess)	Elementary: Happygrams, applause, display group work, AV treat, play a special game. Middle/high school: library passes, computer time, daily announcements recognition, newsletter recognition, display work, special privileges, team picture displayed. (Source: 2)
Feedback	At the close of activity, teammates write on 3" × 5" card: “Which question/problem gave you difficulty?” “Give examples of what you might do differently next time.” “List ways in which your partners helped the team to reach its goal.” (Source: 2)

Sources: (1) Bassano & Christison (1995); (2) Cantlon (1991); (3) Kagan (1998); (4) Kagan (1999); (5) Coehlo, Winer, & Olsen (1989).

Even under the best of circumstances, cooperative learning has its challenges. Even though many educators seize on the advantages of having English learners help one another in class, this should not become the default strategy for classroom cooperative learning. Cohen (1994) found barriers to successful group work, including “undesirable domination on the part of some students, and nonparticipation and withdrawal on the part of others” (p. 26). As Beaumont (1999) noted, the quality of collaborative learning varies with the maturity of students, and “often peer assistance did not provide sufficient support for students whose academic success depended on additional instructional interventions” (p. 235). Table 5.6 offers tactics for teachers to address barriers to successful cooperative learning.

Many types of tasks have been designed that feature cooperative structures. These range from simply pairing students for discussion to more elaborate setups requiring extensive time for preparation and monitoring. Table 5.7 presents a few cooperative structures and tasks. (Sources are identified with number keys.)

The jigsaw model of cooperative learning is particularly useful in that students are individually accountable for learning their own material and for sharing their information effectively with other group members. In the jigsaw method, each member (A, B, C, or D) of each base team (I, II, III, or IV) attends an expert group session (all the As huddle together)

TABLE 5.6 Challenges to Cooperative Learning and Tactics to Meet Them

Challenge	Tactics for Teachers
Students cannot get along.	Keep activities short and simple while students are learning how to work together. Group students wisely; place a socially immature student with two who are more mature. Teach social skills and review regularly.
Student prefers to work alone.	Provide encouragement by emphasizing importance of working in a group, giving examples from teacher's work. Give bonus points to class for working well together. Provide individual work occasionally as “safety valve.”
Student is unmotivated.	Use interest inventory to discover student's likes and dislikes. Ask previous teachers what works for the student. Give student a role in the group in which he or she will succeed.
Student cannot keep up with others.	Let student prepare some part of task prior to group work. Provide a modified worksheet for slow student. Provide an alternate way for student to perform.
Group finishes before others.	Provide an extension or enrichment task that extends the activity. Two groups who finish first can compare their products.
Group finishes last.	See if task can be modified so all groups will finish together. Teacher or member of early finishing group can spend some time to help slow group. Let individuals take home tasks.
Too much noise.	Monitor groups and commend those who are quiet and on task. Use a standard signal for noise such as blinking room lights. Assign a member of each group as noise control.

Source: Ellis & Whalen, 1992.

TABLE 5.7 Sample Cooperative Learning Activities

Name of Activity	Description of Activity
Relay	Four students learn a skill; they teach it to four others; eight teach it to eight more, until everyone knows it. (Source: 1)
Group Memory	In groups of six, give each group a line to memorize. Group members receive extra credit if everyone can say it when time is up. (Source: 1)
Listen Please (also called Information Gap)	In this paired activity, student A has words on various cards and student B has a matching set of picture cards. Listening to the description on a card, student B must pick out the matching card. (Source: 1)
Sequencing Task	Students put a cut-up sequence in correct order. Example: scrambled dialogue from a phone call to a friend. (Source: 1)
Scavenger Hunt	With a stack of newspapers, group finds one of each: some good news, some bad news, weather map, letter to editor, overseas news, etc. (Source: 1)
Round Robin	Each person does a problem (using one color ink) and then passes paper to next team member, who does the next problem. Teacher corrects one sheet. (Source: 2)
Jigsaw	Students receive number and letter (Ex.: I–IV, A–D). Base teams: I, II, III, IVs. Students exit base team; all As group to study one aspect, etc., then return to base team to share expertise. (Source: 2)
Numbered Heads Together	Each student in the group has a number (1–4); students huddle to make sure all can respond, then a number is called and that student responds. (Source: 3)
Rotating Review	Students visit wall charts; each chart has different review question; they write answers, then rotate to next chart. (Source: 3) If they agree with what is already written, they mark with asterisk.
Send-a-Problem	Groups create problems that are sent around the class for other teams to solve. (Source: 3)
Pairs Compare	Pairs come up with ideas to solve a problem. When pairs are through, two pairs make a team of four and compare ideas, generating more ideas. (Source: 4)
4S Brainstorming	While brainstorming solutions to an open-ended prompt, team members take one of four roles: Speed Sergeant: Encourages many responses quickly; Sultan of Silly: Tries to come up with silly ideas; Synergy Guru: Helps members build on one another's ideas; and Sergeant Support: Encourages all ideas, suspends judgment. (Source: 4)
Group Memory	Students write everything they know about a topic they plan to study, including unanswered questions that come to them. In groups of three, they read the paper to the group, and everybody adds ideas to their list. The group compiles unanswered questions and turns in a Group Memory Sheet. (Source: 5)
Partner Prediction	Teacher preidentifies places in a literature story where the students can stop and predict what happens next. They share predictions with a partner. They must then share aloud what the partner predicts.

(continued)

TABLE 5.7 Sample Cooperative Learning Activities *Continued*

Name of Activity	Description of Activity
2/4 Question Some More	Teacher identifies key points in a read-aloud story. Partners talk about the story so far, then discuss what questions occur to them. They share these in a team of four, then with the class. (Source: 5)
Panel of Experts	Students read selected passages, taking notes of possible comprehension questions. In a group, students agree on four questions. One group in the room forms a panel, and others question them. Play continues until panel gets two right or one wrong; then questioning group becomes panel. (Source: 5)
Picture Dialogue	Before reading, teacher displays a picture from the book or sets a mental image using words. Working in pairs, students take character A or B and write a dialogue that characters say to each other. They read them aloud. (Source: 5)

Sources: (1) Bassano & Christison (1995); (2) Cantlon (1991); (3) Kagan (1998); (4) Kagan (1999); (5) Whisler & Williams (1990).

to study one aspect or section of the topic and thus has one piece of the knowledge puzzle (hence the name “Jigsaw”). Then the individuals return to their base team to share what they have learned. The ultimate learning goal is for each member of the base team to have the whole set of information, so each member must communicate what has been learned in the expert group.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Jigsaw Cooperative Learning

In one use of the jigsaw model, intermediate ELD students studied the use of persuasion in advertising by looking at three different types of ads in three expert groups and completing worksheets with questions such as “How is the ad trying to persuade you? Is it using reason, an appeal to the emotions, or an appeal to a feeling of right or wrong? Is the advertisement effective? Why or why not?” Returning to their base group, group members described the ad they studied and completed a second worksheet summarizing the types and effectiveness of persuasion used in various ads. Students then worked cooperatively to write their own ads.

Source: Weatherly, 1999, p. 79

Activating Connections to Students’ Previous Knowledge

In the teaching context, prior knowledge refers to what students bring with them that can be tapped and built on during the lesson, consisting of students’ existing concepts, understandings, and relevant experiences. These ideas may include misconceptions, so some “unlearning” may have to take place. Also, some prior knowledge may be based on experiences and conceptualizations of the students’ home cultures that are beyond the teacher’s experience.

Brain-based theory postulates that learners are engaged when the brain is able to create meaning by blending knowledge from previous experiences with concepts from present experiences. Effective teachers thus orchestrate meaning by making connections, instead of leaving this to chance. These connections can be made by establishing links to students' lives and their previous academic knowledge and then by anchoring previous knowledge to new ideas and concepts.

BEST PRACTICE Tapping into Previous Knowledge

The following strategies elicit information from students and help the teacher understand the extent of students' understanding:

- Brainstorming
- K-W-L (What do I know? What do I want to learn? What have I learned?)
- Mind maps
- Pretests
- Questionnaires
- Interviews

If students have little prior knowledge about the topic at hand, teachers can help them build schema or schemata—that is, construct a framework of concepts that shows the relationships between old and new learning and how they are connected. Semantic mapping and webs are ways of presenting concepts to show their relationships. After a brainstorming session, the teacher and students could organize their ideas into a semantic map, with the main idea in the center of the chalkboard and associated or connected ideas as branches from the main idea. Alternatively, a teacher could be more directive in creating a map by writing the central topic and branching out from it with several major subtopics. Students could provide information that the teacher then writes into the appropriate category.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Building Schemata

Mrs. Figueroa read *Cloudy with a Chance of Meatballs* (Barrett, 1978) to her second-grade students. Using a concept map with the words “junk food” in the center, they brainstormed on the following questions: “What is junk food?” “What junk food can you think of?” and “What is in junk food that our bodies don’t need?” Students then grouped in pairs to write an adventure story with junk food as the villain.

An anticipation guide can help to determine the extent of students' prior knowledge. As a prelearning exercise, students receive five to ten statements presented in written or oral form, which they judge as true or false. Reviewing the same statements after teaching can help students clarify any misunderstandings they might have had initially.

**CLASSROOM GLIMPSE****Anticipation Guide for Earthquake Unit**

Ellen Wexford's sixth-grade earth science class was about to begin a unit on earthquakes. She knew from experience that despite being residents of an earthquake-prone region, her students held many misconceptions about tectonic activity. So she constructed an anticipation guide that would be useful to her and her students. She chose items that would correlate with the core knowledge they would need for the unit. Included was the statement, "California might break off from the continent because of a large earthquake." By the end of the unit, she hoped that students would be able to give a reason-based response, choosing "False!"

Source: Adapted from Fisher & Frey, 2009, pp. 43–47

Differentiating Instruction to Meet Students' Learning Diversity

Offering Diverse Learning Modalities The nature of teaching requires some kind of standardization and grouping because class sizes are usually too large to treat each student in a unique manner. The reality in U.S. classrooms, however, is that students are increasingly heterogeneous in an array of ways beyond language. Students with disabilities may be mainstreamed into English learners' classrooms; English learners may have disparate second-language-acquisition (SLA) levels; students may have stronger listening/speaking skills in English than reading, or the reverse; and students may be entering the classroom in midyear, having missed important content. The challenge is clear: How can curriculum, instruction, and assessment be responsive to this learner diversity?

BEST PRACTICE**Learning Centers for Differentiated Instruction**

Centers can be used in any content class to provide intentional experiences that allow students to learn in diverse ways, such as the following examples of centers that can be used at the middle-school level to teach about Egypt:

- *Poet's corner.* Using different types of verse as models, students can work alone or with partners to read or create poetry.
- *Technology center.* Students can write and publish their own stories, using Inspiration software that displays the sequence of events in the story.
- *Storyboards.* Students can create storyboard pictures, with text underneath to tell the story.
- *Cool stuff.* Using interesting materials such as gel pens and paper with interesting borders, students can create ads for books they write or have read.

Using Realia, Manipulatives, and Hands-on Materials Student learning activities should develop students' interactive language but not disadvantage an English learner. Collaborative problem-solving teams include member roles that provide a variety of input and output modalities to balance the English skills and nonverbal talents of students. English learners can benefit from the use of media, realia, science equipment, diagrams, models, experiments, manipulatives, and other modalities that make language more comprehensible and that expand the means and modes by which they receive and express information.

Promoting Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

Cummins (1979) posited two different yet related language skills: basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). BICS involves those language skills and functions that allow students in school to communicate in everyday social contexts that are similar to those of the home: to perform classroom chores, chat with peers, or consume instructional media as they do television shows at home.

BICS is *context embedded* because participants can provide feedback to one another, the situation itself provides cues that further understanding, and factors apart from the linguistic code can furnish meaning. In contrast, CALP, as the name implies, is the language needed to perform abstract and decontextualized school tasks successfully. Students must rely primarily on language to attain meaning. For English learners, BICS has been found to approach native-like levels within two years of exposure to English, but five or more years may be required for minority students to match native speakers in CALP (Collier, 1987; Cummins, 1981). Students need skills in both kinds of language.

Because CALP provides few concrete cues to assist comprehension, it is *context-reduced* communication. CALP also involves systematic thought processes, the cognitive toolbox needed to categorize, compare, analyze, and accommodate new experiences and is therefore key to acquiring the in-depth knowledge needed in a complex modern society.

CALP requires growing beyond the simple use of language to the more complex ability to *think and talk about* language—metalinguistic awareness. Precise differentiation of word meaning and the ability to decode complicated sentences demand from students a gradual understanding of the cultural and social uses of the language to which they are exposed. CALP

Pictures and hands-on activities help students to gain basic interpersonal communicative skills as well as academic language.



is not gained solely from school or solely from the home—one reinforces the other. However, CALP is highly dependent on the assistance of teachers because, for the most part, CALP is learned in school. Teachers can help students to acquire academic language by analyzing the conceptual and critical thinking requirements of the grade-level curriculum *and* taking the time to ensure that all students are explicitly taught such requirements.

Without this explicit attention to teaching English learners high-level academic language, one of three outcomes is all too common. First, students who come to school already having acquired CALP as a benefit of a privileged home environment may outshine English learners. Second, the curriculum for English learners may be watered down due to the assumption that those who lack CALP cannot perform academically at a high cognitive level. Third, students lacking CALP in English are not able to participate knowledgeably and are often confined to a skills-based, direction-instruction approach that does not encourage a constructivist learning environment.

Academic materials that focus on teaching academic language teach not only content but also the cognitive skills to acquire the vocabulary for academic functions. Such words as *choice*, *decision*, *advantages*, *disadvantages*, *pros*, and *cons* accomplish the academic function of “justifying.” (p. 223). Other academic language includes such all-purpose words *responsible*, *avoid*, *accept*, *solve a problem*, *denotation*, *connotation*, *thesaurus*, *substitute*, and *synonym*. Note that some of these academic vocabulary words have cognates in Spanish (*responsible*, *problem*, *substitute*) whereas others do not (*avoid*). Cognates often make learning easier, but not always.

The complexity of CALP can be captured by examination of the five Cs: communication, conceptualization, critical thinking, context, and culture (see Table 5.8). Many of the skills that are a part of CALP are refinements of basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), whereas others are more exclusively school-centered.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Developing CALP

Mrs. Álvarez found in her second-grade structured English immersion class that, although the students were fairly fluent in English when chatting with one another, they lacked the vocabulary to perform on academic tasks. When she gave instructions or briefly reviewed concepts, the students appeared lost. She became aware that students needed to move along the continuum from their everyday English usage to more abstract academic language.

The class was studying the ocean. Mrs. Álvarez set up learning centers with shells, dried seaweed, fish fossils, and other ocean objects. The instructions for these centers featured patterned, predictable language tied to the concrete objects, with words such as *group*, *shape*, and *size*. Gradually Mrs. Álvarez tape-recorded more complex and abstract instructions for use in the learning centers, such as *classify*, *arrange*, and *attribute*. This progression and integration of activities helped the children move along the continuum from BICS to CALP.

Modifying Instructional Delivery Without Simplification

Teachers must ensure that students understand what is said in the classroom. Teachers in SDAIE classrooms devote particular attention to four communication strategies: *language contextualization*, *teacher's speech modification*, *repetition and paraphrase*, and *use of patterned language*.

TABLE 5.8 Components of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)

Component	Explanation
Communication	<p>Reading: Increases speed; masters a variety of genres in fiction (poetry, short story) and nonfiction (encyclopedias, magazines, Internet sources).</p> <p>Listening: Follows verbal instructions; interprets nuances of intonation (e.g., in cases of teacher disciplinary warnings); solicits, and benefits from, help of peers.</p> <p>Speaking: Gives oral presentations, answers correctly in class, and reads aloud smoothly.</p> <p>Writing: Uses conventions such as spelling, punctuation, report formats.</p>
Conceptualization	<p>Concepts become abstract and are expressed in longer words with more general meaning (<i>rain</i> becomes <i>precipitation</i>).</p> <p>Concepts fit into larger theories (<i>precipitation</i> cycle).</p> <p>Concepts fit into hierarchies (rain → precipitation cycle → weather systems → climate).</p> <p>Concepts are finely differentiated from similar concepts: (<i>sleet</i> from <i>hail</i>, <i>typhoons</i> from <i>hurricanes</i>).</p> <p>Conceptual relations become important (opposites, subsets, causality, correlation).</p>
Critical thinking	<p>Uses graphic organizers to represent the structure of thought.</p> <p>Uses textual structures (outlines, paragraphing, titles, main idea).</p> <p>Reads between the lines (inference).</p> <p>Detects bias; separates fact from opinion; tests validity of sources.</p>
Context	<p>Nonverbal: Uses appropriate gestures; interprets nonverbal signs accurately.</p> <p>Formality: Behaves formally when required to do so.</p> <p>Participation structures: Fits in smoothly to classroom and schoolwide groups and procedures.</p>
Culture	<p>Draws on background knowledge.</p> <p>Uses social-class markers, such as “manners.”</p> <p>Moves smoothly between home and school.</p> <p>Marshals parental support for school achievement.</p> <p>Deploys primary-language resources when required.</p> <p>Maintains uninterrupted primary-culture profile (“fits in” to neighborhood social structures).</p>

Language Contextualization Teaching should be focused on the context of the immediate task, augmenting vocabulary with gestures, pictures, realia, and so forth to convey instructions or key words and concepts. This provides a rich visual and/or kinesthetic (e.g., through drama and skits) environment. Verbal markers are used to organize the lesson, such as *note this* to denote importance, or *now, first, second, and last* to mark a sequence. To help with directions, teachers can determine the ten most frequently used verbal markers and teach these through mini-total physical response (TPR)-type lessons. The teacher might also learn how to say simple directions in the students’ language(s).

Teacher’s Speech Modification To be understandable to those who do not speak or understand English well, the teacher must adjust speech from the customary native speech patterns. This takes place at many linguistic levels—phonological (precise articulation); syntactic

(shorter sentences, with subject–verb–object word order); semantic (more concrete, basic vocabulary; fewer idioms); pragmatic (frequent and longer pauses; slower delivery; and exaggerated intonation, especially placing more stress on important new concepts); and discourse (self-repetition; main idea easily recognized and supporting information following immediately). Teachers in SDAIE classrooms also speak less in the classroom, encouraging students to talk. There is much evidence indicating that teachers should reduce teacher talking time (TTT) while teaching and increase the amount of student talking time (STT). As Harmer (2007) pointed out,

Overuse of TTT is inappropriate because the more a teacher talks, the less chance there is for students to practice their own speaking—and it is students who need the practice, not the teacher. If the teacher talks and talks, the students will have less time for other things, too, such as reading and writing. For these reasons, a good teacher maximizes STT and minimizes TTT. (p. 38)

As students become more proficient in English, teachers again adjust their speech, this time increasing speed and complexity. Ultimately, English learners will need to function in an all-English-medium classroom; therefore, over time, SDAIE teachers need to reduce the speech-modification scaffolds they use to accommodate their students' evolving proficiency. Table 5.9 summarizes the modifications teachers can make in speech and instructional delivery to make their teaching more comprehensible.

Repetition and Paraphrase Verbal repetition can be employed to increase comprehensibility (for example, using the same type of directions throughout various lessons), as can organizational repetition (lessons that occur at specific times, lessons with clearly marked verbal and nonverbal boundaries, such as “Now it’s time to . . .,” or the use of specific locations for specific content). Concepts are presented numerous times through various means. Elaboration, in which the teacher supplies redundant information through repetition and paraphrase, may also prove effective.

Use of Patterned Language It is helpful for teachers to signal the beginnings and endings of lessons clearly, using stock phrases (e.g., “Math time is over. Put away your books”). Procedures and classroom routines should be predictable so that English learners do not feel they have to be ever vigilant for a change in rules. This reduces stress and gives students a feeling of security.

Although SDAIE teaching involves presentation of subject matter in English, opportunities are available throughout the lesson for students to clarify their understanding using their primary language, supplemented whenever possible by primary-language resources (print, electronic, personnel) that can help students with key concepts.

The scope of this book does not permit an exhaustive discussion of SDAIE. For an excellent in-depth treatment, refer to *Making Content Comprehensible for English Language Learners: The SIOP Model* (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2016).

Explanation of Concepts in the Primary Language In SDAIE classrooms, students are afforded opportunities to learn and clarify concepts in their own language. When possible, the teacher offers primary-language resources (print, electronic, personnel) that can help students with key concepts. Although SDAIE teaching involves presenting subject matter in English, teachers continue to provide opportunities throughout the lesson for students to clarify their understanding using the primary language.

TABLE 5.9 Teachers' Language Modification in SDAIE

Type of Modification	Definition	Example
Precise articulation	Increased attention to enunciation so that consonants and vowels in words are understandable	"Trade your <i>homework</i> with the person <i>beside</i> you."
Use of gestures	Showing with hands what is to be done	Make a swapping gesture with papers to act out "trading homework."
Intonation	Increased stress on important concepts	"The number of <i>correct</i> answers goes at the top of the page."
Simplified syntax	Shorter sentences, with subject-verb-object word order	"Mark the papers. Give them back."
Semantic clarity	More concrete, basic vocabulary; fewer idioms	"Turn in your work. I mean, give me your homework."
Pragmatic distinctness	Frequent and longer pauses; slightly slower delivery	"Check the chemicals . . . Check the list . . . Be sure your team has all the chemicals for your experiment."
Use of discourse markers	Careful use of transition words, emphasis, and sequence markers	"Note this" to denote importance, or "now," "first," "second," and "last" to mark a sequence.
Use of organizational markers	Clearly indicating change of activity	"It's time for recess . . . Put away your books."
More structured discourse	Main idea easily recognized and supporting information following immediately	"Today we are learning about mole weight. . . I will show you how to calculate mole weight to make the correct solution."
Use of clarification checks	Stopping instruction to ask students if they understand; monitoring students' comprehension	"Hold your thumb up in front of your chest if you understand how to use the formula for acceleration."
Soliciting written input	Having students write questions on index cards	"I have a card here asking for another explanation of longitude degrees and minutes. OK . . ."
Repetition	Revisiting key vocabulary terms	" <i>Precipitation</i> means overall rain or snowfall; we are going to study the precipitation cycle."
Use of mini-TPR lessons to preteach key terms	Acting out terms to increase understandability	"'On the other hand'"; "Carlos, stand over here, and Elena, stand here—you are 'on one hand,' <i>he</i> is 'on the other hand.'"
Use of primary language	Saying simple directions in the students' language(s)	" <i>tsai jher</i> , over here, <i>tsai nar</i> , over there" (Mandarin).

Recourse to the primary language is still a controversial issue, and many teachers shy away from it on the mistaken belief that primary-language use detracts from developing English proficiency. However, research continues to show that when students are able to employ their first language, they make more academic gains in both content and language than if they are prohibited from using it.

Clarification Checks Teachers monitor listening and reading comprehension at intervals to gain a sense of the students' ability to understand. The teacher might pause to ask a question requiring a simple response, such as "Show me how you are going to begin your work," or ask individual students to restate the instruction using their own words.

Questions at the literal level are designed simply to check whether students understand directions, details, or procedures. During formal presentations, teachers often use strategies such as asking students to "vote" on their understanding of what has been said by a show of hands. This helps to maintain interest and check for understanding. Depending on student response, teachers may need to rephrase questions and information if the students do not initially understand.

Using Questions to Promote Reflection Effective questioning techniques can probe for students' abilities to infer and evaluate. Teachers need to be patient when asking questions—to wait for students to understand the question before calling on individuals. Even after nominating a student to answer, wait-time is necessary to allow an English learner to compose and deliver a response. He or she may know the answer but need a little more processing time to say it in English.

Effective mediational questions—those that promote reflection—focus on the process of thought rather than on low-level details. The following questions or requests provoke thought:

"Can you explain how you did that?" "Is there another way we could solve this problem?" "If we do that, what might happen?" or "What do you think is the next step?"

Students need to be encouraged by teachers to engage in active oral participation in class. Zwiers (2008) suggested five kinds of prompts to urge students to elaborate their talk. First, teachers should *prompt further thinking* using phrases like "You're on to something important. Keep going" or "You're on the right track. Tell us more." Students can be asked to *justify their responses*: "That's a probable answer. How did you get to that answer?" or "What evidence do you have to support that claim?"

Teachers can *ask for a report* on an investigation by saying, "Describe your result," or "What do you think caused that to happen?" *To see other points of view*, students can be asked, "If you were in that person's shoes, what would you have done?" or "Would you have reacted like that? Why or why not?" Finally, to prompt students to *consider consequences*, one might say, "What if she had not done that?" or "How can we apply this in real life?" Open-ended questions like these elicit a greater balance between the amount of student talk and teacher talk.

Skilled questioning using a linguistic hierarchy of question types helps teachers ascertain students' understanding. For students in the "silent period," questions elicit a nonverbal response—a head movement, pointing, or manipulation of materials. Once students begin to speak, they can choose the correct word or phrase to demonstrate understanding of either/or questions: "Does the water expand or contract to form ice?" "Did Russians come to California from the west or the north?" Once students are more comfortable producing language, *wh*-questions are used: "What is happening to the water?" "Which countries sent explorers to California?" "What was the purpose of their exploration?" Skillful teachers can ask questions requiring critical or creative thinking even at the beginning level; students at advanced English levels are not the only ones capable of inferential thinking.

Scaffolding: Temporary Support for Learning

In education, scaffolding is used to help the learner construct knowledge. During scaffolding, the teacher helps to focus the learner's attention on relevant parts of the task by asking key

TABLE 5.10 Scaffolding Strategies for Use in Content Areas

Scaffolding Strategy	Description of Use in the Content Class
Previewing vocabulary	Before beginning a social studies lesson, students in pairs skim the chapter and look up definitions in the glossary.
Prereading activities	Students make collages with pictures of vegetables cut from magazines before reading in the health book about the vitamins found in common foods.
Language experience approach	After performing a laboratory experiment, students interview one another and write down a report of the experiment results.
Interactive journals	Students describe personal exercise goals and write daily results in a journal; their peer “personal trainer” reads and provides feedback and encouragement.
Shared reading	Students “buddy read” encyclopedia entries as they write a group science research report.
Learning logs	In a mathematics center, students make entries into a group log as they try to solve a weekly puzzle.
Process writing	Students working on a month-long family history project share their rough drafts with family members to gain input before final revision.

questions that help to determine the zone of proximal development for that student on the particular task. Questions and verbalizations give students the opportunity to think and talk about what they must do.

Dividing the task into smaller, manageable subcomponents and sensitively withdrawing assistance when it is no longer required furthers success. The teacher who uses scaffolding skillfully does so in a form of dynamic assessment, evaluating and teaching at the same time. Table 5.10 presents scaffolding strategies in various content areas.

Providing Graphic Organizers

Another way to scaffold is to make verbal information visual. Graphic organizers are visual frames used to represent and organize information—“a diagram showing how concepts are related” (McKenna & Robinson, 1997, p. 117). Many kinds of graphic organizers can also be used to help students focus their thoughts and reactions—for example, as they read a literature selection. Because graphic organizers balance visual with verbal representation, they can help to make visible the conceptual structures that underlie content. This helps students make models for understanding ideas and outcomes. Once students and teachers become familiar with graphic organizers, they are a help to English learners in grasping basic concepts without dependence on language as the sole source of understanding.

Graphic organizers are particularly useful in content instruction. With mind maps or other information organizers, students can interact with the concepts presented in various content areas in a way that supplements verbal text. Thus, English learners can access core content even when their reading skills are weak. This results in greater student engagement in their learning.

Graphic organizers have at least three major applications. First, *representative/explanatory* organizers are used to increase content understanding, either by building background knowledge before students read a text or synthesizing new information that is gained from a text. Second, *generative* organizers promote ideas related to content. Students can talk or write about the information presented on a chart. Third, *evaluative* organizers help explain content. Figure 5.2 shows examples of these three types.

A *sequential organizer* is an explanatory diagram that shows items in order, such as parts of a book, a letter, or an essay; events in a story plot; or steps in written directions. Figure 5.3 shows a sequential organizer used to list the beginning, middle, and end of a story. Figure 5.4 shows the problem–solution chain in a Native American “coyote” story. If the events repeat, a cycle graph might be used. A sequence can be a cartoon, a picture strip, or a timeline.

FIGURE 5.2 Three Types of Graphic Organizers

Representative/Explanatory

- Sequential
- Compare/contrast circles
- T-chart
- Comparison chart
- Embedded
- Whole/part
- Cause/effect
- Classification

Generative

- Concept development
- Mind map
- Spider map
- K-W-L

Evaluative

- Grade scale
- Likert scale

FIGURE 5.3 Sample Sequential Organizer: Story Sequence Chart

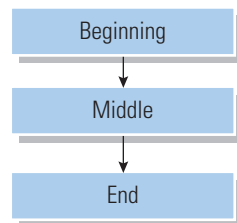


FIGURE 5.4 Sample Sequential Organizer: Problems and Solutions in a Story

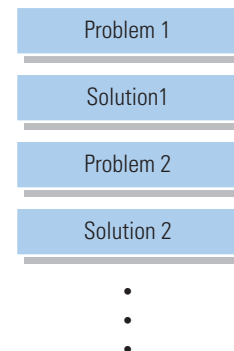


FIGURE 5.5 Sample Compare/Contrast (Venn) Diagram Used for the Questions “How Are Two Things Alike? How Are They Different?”

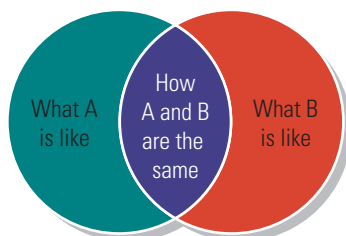
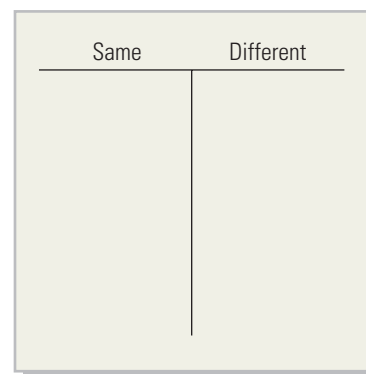


FIGURE 5.6 Sample T-Chart: Comparison of Same and Different



Compare/contrast organizers can be used to compare characters in the same story or in different stories, types of correspondence (business versus friendly letters), or genres of reading (fiction versus nonfiction). Visually, comparison charts can be of various types: compare/contrast circles (Venn diagram, see Figure 5.5), T-charts (see Figure 5.6), or comparison charts (see Figure 5.7).

Other *relational organizers* can show information that is embedded (see Figure 5.8), whole/part (see Figure 5.9), or cause/effect (see Figure 5.10).

Classification organizers are used to create hierarchies (Figure 5.11), matrixes (Figure 5.12), or other concept relations that show specific structures. Figure 5.13 shows a two-dimensional plot; Figure 5.14 demonstrates an alternative way to display a hierarchy.

FIGURE 5.7 Sample Comparison Chart Showing Comparison by Attributes

Comparison of Civilizations		
	<i>Egypt</i>	<i>United States</i>
Duration	More than 4000 years	About 400 years
Political structure	Towns united by centralized government	Hierarchy: towns, counties, states, federal government
Religion	Pharaonic, later Islam	Predominantly Protestant Christian, then Catholic Christian, then Jewish, Islam, other
etc.		

FIGURE 5.8 Sample Relational Organizer Showing Embedded Concepts (Teacher's Phenomenal Field of Personal Relations in the Role of Teacher)



FIGURE 5.10 Sample Relational Organizer Showing Cause/Effect (Possible Causes of Lightbulb Nonfunctioning)

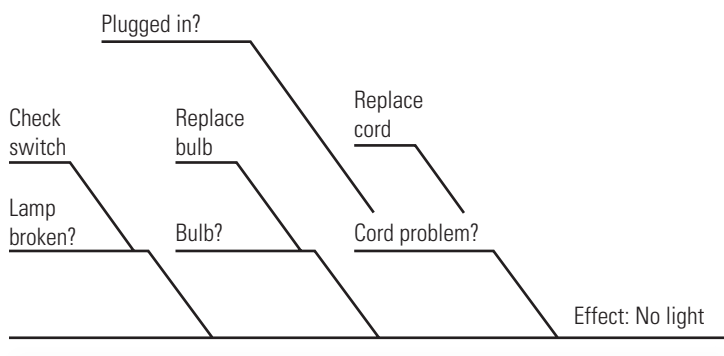


FIGURE 5.12 Sample Classification Chart Showing a Matrix

	Boys	Girls	Totals
Blue-eyed	4	7	11
Brown-eyed	13	10	23
Totals	17	17	34

FIGURE 5.9 Sample Relational Organizer Showing Whole/Part (Parts of the Atom)

Atom	Nucleus	Protons
		Neutrons
	Electrons	

FIGURE 5.11 Sample Classification Chart Showing Main Ideas

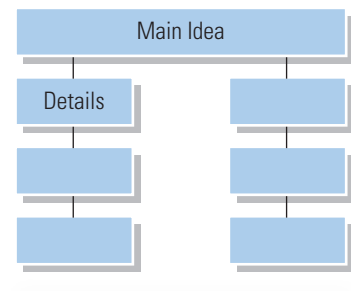


FIGURE 5.13 Sample Classification Chart Showing Dimensions (Learning Styles)

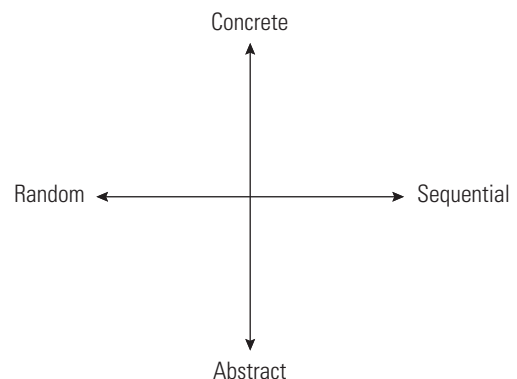
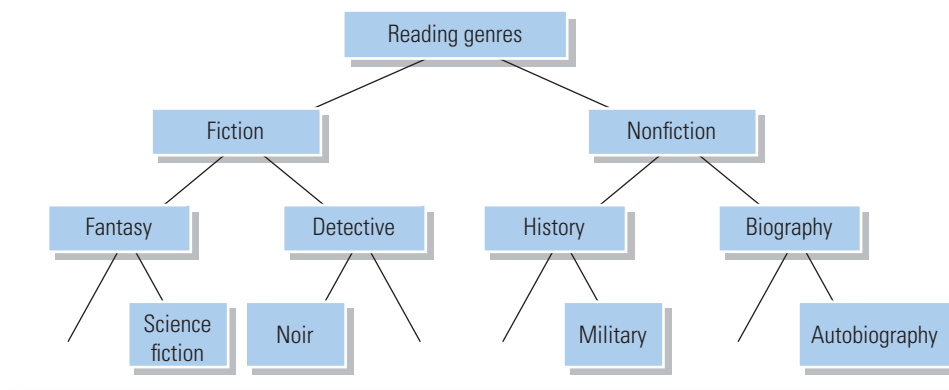


FIGURE 5.14 Sample Classification Chart Showing Hierarchy**BEST PRACTICE** A Classification Task

Students can practice a classification graphic organizer by sorting a list of recyclable items: newspapers, soda bottles, soup cans, shampoo containers, office paper, clean aluminum foil, junk mail, a shoe box, plastic water bottles, and so on. (Let them make their own categories.)

Source: Adapted from Bonesteel, Gargagliano, & Lambert, 2010, p. 169

Concept development organizers are used to brainstorm. They do not display information that is already related. The K-W-L chart is used to introduce a theme, a lesson, or a reading. It can help generate interest in a topic and support students in using their prior knowledge as they read. Students can enter K (what we Know) and W (what we Want to know) in advance, reserving L (what we Learned) for the end of the unit or lesson (see Figure 5.15). The mind map is basically a circle showing the topic in the center, with lines or other connectors around it that tie students' ideas to the topic (see Figures 5.16 and 5.17).

FIGURE 5.15 Sample Concept Development Chart: K-W-L

What We Know	What We Want to Know	What We Have Learned

FIGURE 5.16 Sample Concept Development Chart: Mind Map or Idea Web

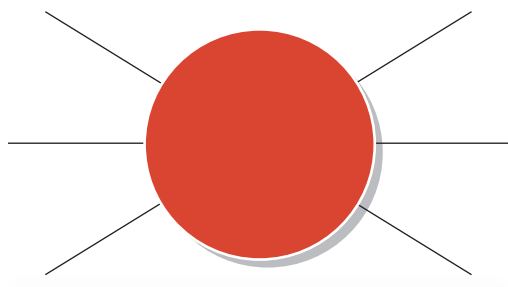
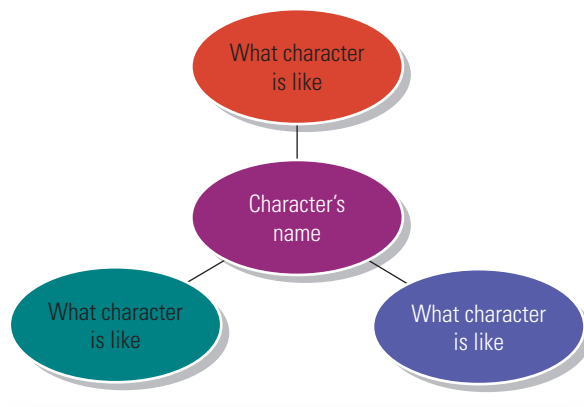


FIGURE 5.17 Sample Concept Development Chart: Character Trait Web



Evaluation organizers show degree of positivity. These can be grade scales (A to F); Likert scales (from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree); rubric scales (needs work → satisfactory → good → excellent); or they can comprise two boxes (“I like/agree with” versus “I dislike/disagree with”) or three boxes (plus/maybe/minus).



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Tutoring with Graphic Organizers

Semantic mapping proved to be a successful approach for three English learners, two boys ages five and nine and their sister, age ten, whom Judy was tutoring. The children had chosen “Halloween” as an interesting topic to explore as a way to increase their vocabulary in English. Starting with words they knew in English (skeleton, witch), Judy wrote the words on chart paper, which the children copied in their notebooks. The children gave other words in Spanish, and Judy found the English equivalents and wrote them too.

Using a fresh piece of chart paper, Judy asked the students how the list of words could be grouped into categories. The activity continued until the words had been grouped into the categories Animals, Monsters, and Trick-or-Treat. Judy followed up this activity by reading a book on Halloween, *Rotten Ralph's Trick or Treat*. When they came to a word on the chart, Judy pointed it out for reinforcement.

Source: Brisk & Harrington, 2000, pp. 71–72

Using Assessment to Promote Learning and Reflection

Formative Assessment and Reteaching As students are learning, the teacher can help them maintain momentum and solve ongoing problems through a process of formative assessment involving progress checks, which helps students to evaluate their efforts in the light of their goals and stay on track. The teacher may require formal weekly progress reports, ask for partial products at predetermined times, or set deadlines for circulation of rough drafts. Formative evaluation can permit much valuable ongoing readjustment of the learning process.

Teachers exercise patience in helping students monitor and adjust their learning to meet the desired performance standards; vanquish students’ habits of sloth or procrastination, if these

are a problem; conquer the students' lack of faith in themselves by providing encouragement, structure, and guidelines; overcome students' impatient desire to improve instantly, as they perhaps try and fail several times before succeeding; help students accept the disappointment of failure if there is some aspect of a complex problem that eludes solution; or make themselves available during students' basic struggle to use English as a means of expression.

Not all learning is successful. Sometimes problems that are worth addressing are beyond comprehension, and sometimes problems that are comprehensible are simply not interesting. Most teachers do everything possible to facilitate successful learning. But, in the last analysis, it is not the teacher's job to rescue students from disappointment or failure; these are a part of authentic learning. Sometimes metalearning—the wisdom about learning—comes after the learning has been attempted, in a process of reflection and hindsight.

Summative Assessment, Culminating Performance, and Metalearning A final performance on a certain day—such as a play with other students as audience or an exhibit for parents—helps students understand the real world of promise and fulfillment. Despite the satisfaction these culminating events offer, the substance of assessment remains with the content standards that have been achieved. Peer evaluation, self-evaluation, and teacher evaluation together garner the final evidence: Was the learning successful? What was learned about the content? What was learned about the process? And most excitingly, what is still not known? What remains to be discovered?

Reflective Pedagogy Pausing to reflect is the final step in lesson delivery; it occurs at the end of instruction for English learners and in turn reactivates the cycle of teaching and planning. Some questions teachers may use to frame critical contemplation of their teaching are listed in Box 5.2.

BOX 5.2**Critical Reflection in Lesson Planning**

- What were the strengths in the lesson?
- Were content, learning, and language objectives clearly stated to students?
- Were students, including English learners, engaged in the lesson?
- How many opportunities were provided for English-language development?
- What evidence do I have to demonstrate that lesson adaptations for English learners were adequate?
- Which evidence demonstrated learning by English learners?
- Which opportunities allowed students to self-assess and be responsible for their own learning?
- What areas require changes for lesson improvement?

Effective Resource Use in ELD and SDAIE

A key to success in the SDAIE classroom is the provision of resource-rich teaching to expand the modalities in which English learners can receive information. But which materials? And how to select them?

Selecting and Using Appropriate Materials

Choosing the right genre is one way to help English learners develop their conceptual and linguistic schemata. The literature curriculum, for example, can be a planned sequence that

begins with familiar structures of folktales and myths and then uses these as a bridge to more complex works of literature. Myths and folktales from many cultures are now commonly available in high-quality editions with vibrant illustrations. Students can move from these folktales and myths to selected short stories by authors of many cultural backgrounds, then to portions of a longer work, and finally to entire works.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

A Variety of Materials

William Pruitt (2000, pp. 31–49) describes how his students move from studying different versions of a folktale to studying other kinds of tales. One of the goals of the story unit is for students to examine how the same story may differ as it appears in different perspectives, media, and cultures, and to compare and contrast these forms. Over the course of the two-week unit, the class reads and compare/contrasts an original (translated) version of “Beauty and the Beast,” a poem entitled “Beauty and the Beast,” and three video versions of the story. Once students have gained experience with this folktale and understand the pattern of activities, the class moves to other texts that have film adaptations, for example, *Tuck Everlasting* (Babbitt, 1976).

Materials used in the classroom are most accessible when they match the age, language ability, and prior content knowledge of the students. Materials in the primary language can supplement content delivery in English. In fact, with a rich theme, materials from around the world can be featured in instruction.

Selecting materials involves an initial choice by the teacher whether to have one main content source or a package of content-related materials (chapters from various texts, video- and audiotapes, magazine and newspaper articles, encyclopedia entries, literary selections, Internet sources, software programs, etc.). Regardless of what is chosen, the teacher must consider two criteria: Are the content objectives for the lesson adequately presented by the material? Is the material comprehensible to English learners?

The following list enumerates items to consider when selecting materials:

- The information is accurate, up-to-date, and thorough.
- The tasks required of students are appropriate to the discipline and promote critical thinking.
- The text is clearly organized and engaging, with attractive print and layout features that assist students’ comprehension.
- The text appeals to a variety of learning styles.
- Sources represented in the text include various literary genres (e.g., narrative, descriptive, analytic).
- The language of the text is straightforward, without complex syntactic patterns, idioms, or excessive jargon.
- New content vocabulary is clearly defined within the text or in a glossary.
- Diagrams, graphs, and charts are clearly labeled and complement and clarify the text.

Content area teachers must also use primary-language resources, such as dictionaries, books, software programs, Internet sites, encyclopedias, textbooks, and illustrated charts as well as people resources, such as cross-age tutors, parents, and community volunteers, in

helping students to understand concepts. English learners in the content class are continually exposed to new content material and often find primary-language sources helpful.

Modifying Materials for Linguistic Accessibility

The teacher selects, modifies, and organizes text material to accommodate the needs of English learners. In modifying text, the goal is to improve comprehensibility through such means as providing study guides or defining new content vocabulary by showing definitions pictorially. Other modifications that may be necessary to help English learners comprehend connected discourse include the following approaches:

- Supply an advance organizer for the text that highlights the key topics and concepts in outline form, as focus questions, or as concept maps.
- Change the modality from written to oral. By reading aloud, the teacher can also model the process of posing questions while reading to show prediction strategies used when working with text (see the discussion of directed reading—thinking activity in Chapter 7).
- Selected passages can be tape-recorded for students to listen to as they read along in the text.
- By working in groups, students can share their notes and help one another complete missing parts or correct misunderstood concepts.

These adaptations increase readability. As students' language proficiency increases, so should the complexity of their reading material. The goal is to move students toward the ability to work with unmodified texts as they make the transition from ELD teaching to the mainstream classroom.

Culturally Appealing Materials

Multicultural materials are a rich source of language and content area learning, including books and other print media, visual aids, props, realia, manipulatives, materials that access other modalities, and human resources. Students may be able to bring in pictures, poems, dances, proverbs, or games; new ways to do math problems; or maps that show a different perspective than that given in the textbook. Shen's Books (www.shens.com) carries a wide selection of multicultural materials that include such themes as multicultural Cinderella stories and other fables; music around the world; foods of the world; immigrant life, adoption, and interracial families; Arabic and Islamic culture; Southeast Asia; and alphabets around the world.

The Internet is also a rich source of multicultural content. Students can search for their own primary-language materials. However, it's possible that the teacher who does not speak or read the primary language of the student may not be able to screen for inappropriate content. However, family or community members might be able to assist in finding educationally relevant content.

Sources for multicultural viewpoints and materials for various curriculum areas are presented in Table 5.11.

Technological Resources to Enhance Instruction

Technology-enhanced learning—or computer-assisted instruction (CAI), as it was once known—has been used in classrooms since the earliest days of word processing (late 1970s), with large-scale tutoring systems available in the 1980s that enabled the individual user to

TABLE 5.11 Multicultural Materials: Sources for the Content Areas

Content Area	Suggested Material
Mathematics	<i>Multicultural Mathematics: A More Inclusive Mathematics</i> . Online at www.ericdigests.org/1996-1/more.htm .
Social Studies	Multicultural history and social studies sites. Online at www.edchange.org/multicultural/sites/history.html .
Literature	<i>Multicultural Children's Literature</i> . Online at www.multiculturalchildrenslit.com .
Science	<i>Multicultural Science and Math Connections</i> Online at http://walch.com/Multicultural-Science-and-Math-Connections.html .

attempt repeated answers and receive error feedback without public embarrassment. Computer-mediated communication (CMC) and more sophisticated computer-simulated learning environments have come into use in the twenty-first century.

Tools for Instruction and Communication The digital revolution is changing the way people learn. Websites offer lesson plans, quizzes, chatrooms, and bulletin boards that allow the learner to sample English idioms, prepare for standardized tests, or connect with English learners in other parts of the world. Many teachers have access to Internet hookups in the classroom. Students can interact with others meaningfully, writing informal emails with “keypals” in different areas of the world or using writing-based chatrooms online in real time.

The instant communication available through the Internet connects students with other parts of the world, with speakers of English, and with rich sources of information. The Internet delivers authentic materials, including texts, images, sound recordings, video clips, virtual reality worlds, and dynamic, interactive presentations. Students can listen to live radio stations from around the world or hear prerecorded broadcasts of music, news, sports, and weather. Search engines (e.g., Google, Yahoo!, Bing) help the student find authentic materials on classroom, group, or individual research topics. Hand-held devices such as cell phones can be used to for group or individual teaching or assessment. Even virtual-reality devices are bringing both the world and artificial worlds into the classroom (see Gadelha, 2017).

Today’s teachers are educated to maximize the instructional and communicative use of the Internet, CD-ROM-based software, and other CMC tools, including audio and video production using computers, although in the process, older noncomputer-based tools of multimedia production are falling by the wayside. Some teachers are also skilled in using computer-managed instruction (CMI) techniques such as grade book programs and database management.

Computers Support Learning Word processing supports the formal writing process by allowing students to electronically organize, draft, revise, edit, and publish their work. Students can develop oral skills by using presentation or authoring software to create professional-looking oral presentations, and they can apply both aural and oral skills in Internet-enabled telephone conversations.

Software available for ELD includes traditional drill-and-practice programs focusing on vocabulary or grammar; tutorials; games; simulations that present students with real-life situations in the language and culture they are learning; productivity tools, such as word processing, databases, spreadsheets, graphics, and desktop publishing (DTP); and presentation or authoring programs. Material from encyclopedias and even *National Geographic* is available on CD-ROM and DVD formats.

Students who are literate in their native language can use the computer to access primary-language content information as they learn English.



Klaus Vedfelt/DigitalVision/Getty Images

The computer is a powerful learning tool that requires the teacher to organize, plan, teach, and monitor. Computer technology can provide students with the means to control their own learning, to construct meaning, and to evaluate and monitor their own performance.

Although language learning has long consisted of face-to-face interaction between teachers and students in the same physical location, new virtual learning environments have been made possible by the development of widespread, rapid Internet access. During virtual learning, students can participate when they choose (many events do not take place simultaneously) and where they choose (students can “log on” from home, from a neighborhood Internet-enabled café, or from a self-access computer lab at school). Software such as Skype enables users to see one another while learning; but even so, it is difficult to replicate the immediacy of real-life presence. Virtual learning is made possible by up-to-date software and hardware and fast, reliable Internet connections; but it is made effective in the same way that learning has always been effective—by expert teaching and motivated, receptive learners.

Examples of SDAIE in the Content Domains

When the planning for instructional objectives aligned with content standards has been completed, consideration then moves to the needs of the English learner. The following sections address the issue of making instruction meaningful to the learner using various facets of SDAIE.

BEST PRACTICE Tips for Online Teaching

When designing Internet-based virtual environments, some aspects are important to remember:

- Students often need mentoring in addition to academic content; in their minds, the two are intertwined to the extent that learners want to see that course assignments are part of a “bigger picture” of real-world applicability.
- Students may not be computer-savvy to the same degree. Computer-based delivery should require middle-of-the-road abilities, not expecting an extreme degree of expertise but not boring those who are accomplished “net-denizens.”
- One cannot take for granted that students know their way around online educational software. They may need an orientation module before content delivery. Some students may need the instructor specifically to take them step by step through the software, with explicit modeling of what is required.
- Students often want “instant” turnaround and feedback on assignments. Instructors must balance these demands with a responsive yet controlled rhythm of communication to accustom students to regular patterns of reinforcement.
- Students often want a high degree of interactivity and communication not only with the course instructor but with other students in the class, using both synchronous (simultaneous) and asynchronous (delayed) delivery.
- There should be some mechanism for mediating communication issues that arise between students if they are engaged in peer communication online.

Bridging: Accessing Prior Knowledge and Building Schemata

All learning builds on what has been previously learned, because the brain uses schemata to think. When exposed to new information, students access what is already known to them. If little prior knowledge exists, the teacher must supply background knowledge so that instruction can make sense.

BEST PRACTICE Ways “Into” Literature

Before reading a work of literature, the teacher can employ various ways to access prior knowledge:

- *Anticipation/reaction guides.* A short list of statements with which students agree or disagree
- *Pictures, art, movies.* Visual cues to build a feeling for the setting
- *Physical objects.* Items relating to the reading selection that students identify and discuss
- *Selected read-alouds.* Passages that pique students’ interest in the selection

Assessing What Is Known Before teaching, one must assess students’ prior knowledge of the concepts and vocabulary that will be presented in the lesson to establish a starting point for the lesson, help students to review and stabilize their background information, and avoid spending instructional time on what is already known. Assessments can include a quick written

pretest, informal survey, show of hands, pair/share (students discuss in pairs, then tell the whole class), teacher-led oral review, or a student quick write of some key points.

Sometimes what is already known is a mishmash of media images and hearsay that must be clarified. At other times, students may not be familiar with, or may disagree with, commonly held beliefs of the mainstream culture.

[S]tudents bring much more background knowledge to the study of history than we sometimes credit them with. History is, after all, not confined to historians. The media also interpret historical events. . . . [T]here are also persistent historical myths and legends held dear by parts of the larger culture—Betsy Ross sewing the first flag, Columbus discovering a new world, and so forth. For some students, these images are comforting; others may feel excluded by the popular culture's mythologies. (Levstik & Barton, 2001, p. 25)

BEST PRACTICE Some Questions to Ask Before Beginning

Sometimes students can write down their prior knowledge. Before beginning a new topic, students can interview each other in pairs to ask the following questions:

- Have you ever read or heard anything about this topic?
- Can you tell me about a similar topic that you think will help us learn about this one?
- If you were a reporter and could talk to someone about this topic, who would you seek out?

Source: Adapted from Fisher, Brozo, Frey, & Ivey, 2007

Building Background Schemata Teachers can provide new experiences that arouse interest in and draw attention to a topic, including field trips, guest speakers, fiction and nonfiction films, experiments, classroom discovery centers, music and songs, poetry and other literature, and computer simulations. To deepen these experiences, the teacher can guide the students to talk and write about them.

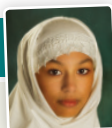


CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Interest-Generating Questions

Mr. Gruen, a seventh-grade science teacher, wrote the following statement on the board: "It's only a matter of time before the earth will be hit by a large object from space." He then asked students to find a partner and think of three questions they would most like answered about this statement. Afterward, he gathered the questions and wrote them on the board, placing a star next to the ones that were similar so students could see common themes of interest. This is part of a larger sequence known as Student Questions for Purposeful Learning (SQPL) (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000).

Source: Adapted from Fisher et al., 2007, p. 113



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

New Experiences to Build Background Knowledge

The firsthand experiences of a field trip piqued the interest of Dorothy Taylor's students in Virginia history and prepared them for the unit she had planned about colonial America.

In the fall, all of the fourth-grade classes in the school went on a field trip to Jamestown, Virginia. The children returned from their trip eager to talk about what they had learned. The field trip and students' enthusiasm were a perfect introduction to the social studies unit on the hardships faced by the Jamestown colonists. The students shared with one another what they knew about Jamestown and colonial America and added to their knowledge and vocabulary by reading and watching a video.

Source: Taylor, 2000, pp. 53–55

Teachers who are familiar with the background of the students can elicit beliefs, observations, and questions using students' everyday knowledge and cultural patterns.

BEST PRACTICE

The Cheche Konnen Science Project

Case studies in classrooms with low-income students from African American, Haitian, and Latino backgrounds found ways that students deployed "sense-making practices—deep questions, vigorous argumentation, situated guesswork, embedded imagining, multiple perspectives, and innovative uses of everyday words" (Lee, 2005, p. 504)—to construct new meanings that were productive bridges to scientific practices. The teachers in the Cheche Konnen project tapped students' linguistic and cultural experiences to link their prior experiences to instruction, letting students draw on the forms of reasoning they employ in their daily lives as intellectual resources in science learning.

Source: Warren, Ballenger, Ogonowski, Rosebery, & Hudicourt-Barnes, 2001

Contextualization When students are asked to learn a new concept, the use of materials, resources, and activities can provide contextualization. The verbal presentation of a lesson is supplemented by manipulatives, realia, media, and visual backup as teachers write key words and concepts on the chalkboard or butcher paper and use graphs, pictures, maps, and other physical props to communicate. By presenting concepts numerous times through various means and in a rich visual, auditory (for example, software programs and Internet sources that offer sounds and experiences), and kinesthetic (drama and skits, "gallery" walks) environment, teachers provide lessons that also appeal to students' different learning styles.

Teachers can contextualize mathematics instruction by having sports fans calculate batting average, points per game, or average speed; students who shop with their parents can help to keep purchases within budget by determining the best-priced item. Many activities in mathematics lend themselves to multicultural reference. Systems of numeration and measurements that originated in ancient civilizations (e.g., Egyptian, Inca, Aztec, Maya) can be explored and contrasted (Hatfield, Edwards, Bitter, & Morrow, 2004). Many countries around the world use the metric system, and English learners may have expertise in this system that they could share.

**CLASSROOM GLIMPSE****Cultural Contextualization**

Linda Arieto, a Puerto-Rican American who grew up in a low-income community in the Bronx, shared a great deal in terms of language, culture, race, and class background with her students at Peter Towns Elementary. She was skillful using and responding to multiple varieties of language familiar to her students, such as Puerto-Rican Spanish, Puerto-Rican English, Black English vernacular, and Standard English. In the area of mathematics, she consistently found and applied lessons in the text that made sense to her students' cultural backgrounds and urban experiences. She used dominoes as math manipulatives, for example, because they correspond to a game that is popular in Caribbean culture.

Source: Remillar & Cahnmann, 2005, pp. 178–179

One example of contextualization is the effort to organize science instruction around common themes (e.g., nature of matter or magnetic energy) or societal issues (e.g., water pollution, drug addiction) to increase the relevance of scientific knowledge to students' lives. This makes science more approachable, allowing for more understanding and reflection, and permits key vocabulary to be used again and again.

Vocabulary Preteaching Building vocabulary concept by concept is integral to content teaching. Not all vocabulary is learned when it is pretaught; it can be presented before a lesson, but it must also be repeated again and again during the lesson as well as afterward, for purposes of long-term memory.

Several strategies are central to vocabulary retention. To encourage *visual cueing*, teachers can post important concepts on the bulletin board throughout a unit, offer key terms in test questions to be used in short-answer responses, color or highlight new words, or try to connect concrete images with terms. Teachers cue *episodic memory* by having students role-play the meanings of key terms, demonstrate or model new ideas, or create semantic maps, posters, or collages to make key ideas more memorable. To promote *verbal rehearsal*, teachers can praise the use of key terms during student discussions, require important words to be used during oral presentations, or use a pointer to refer to central concepts during lectures (Gregory & Kuzmich, 2005).

BEST PRACTICE**Vocabulary Development Across Proficiency Levels**

Instructors of English learners should not assume that all vocabulary instruction must be concrete. Each particular word calls for a unique balance of concrete (real objects, meaningful movement [TPR], modeling, actual experience), symbolic (pictures, charts, icons, maps, models, graphic organizers), or abstract representation (verbal-only explanations orally or in print). Boyd-Batstone (2006) recommends a three-part checklist to judge the best way to teach or depict a new word: (1) Can a real object or experience be used? (2) Is a visual model useful? (3) Can an abstract term be “unpacked” (using word origin, related roots, cognates, primary-language translation, or metaphors)?



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Teaching the Word *Metamorphosis*

Ny Ha took considerable care to teach her third-grade students the term *metamorphosis*. She brought in a fishbowl with tadpoles and students observed and recorded the change of life cycle. She provided numerous picture books as well as computer programs that showed sequential pictures. Students created semantic maps of the concept. They made life cycle collages. They looked at models of caterpillars undergoing change. They used Kidspiration to generate mind maps using pictorial clip art. In the end, Ny thinks they “got it”!

Source: Adapted from Boyd-Batstone, 2006

Strategic Teaching Using Multimodalities

Students can be provided with cognitively engaging input (both oral and written) in ways that appeal to their learning styles and preferences. Many students need to see, hear, smell, touch, and feel knowledge all at the same time!



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Supplementing the Verbal Presentation

In a middle school life science class, Ms. Chen teaches about flowers by referring students to the explanation in the text (paragraph form), to a diagram of a flower in the text (graphic form), to a wall chart with a different flower (pictorial form), to a text glossary entry (dictionary form), and to actual flowers that students can examine. Through these numerous media, the concepts “petal,” “stamen,” “pistil,” and “sepal” are understood and provide a basis for future study about life-forms. The teacher’s task here is to ensure that these multiple sources are organized to communicate clearly and distinguish each concept.

Access to Cognitive Academic Language Across the Content Areas

Each academic subject makes distinct demands on the student. For example, mathematics uses discourse that is unlike natural language. Readers may find confusing the tendency to interrupt for the inclusion of formulae. Such texts require a reading rate adjustment because they must be read more slowly and require multiple readings. Charts and graphs are an integral part of the text, not a supplement, and technical language has precise meaning. Besides the key words and phrases heard in lesson presentations, there are also key direction words that students need to know, such as *analyze*, *compare*, *contrast*, *define*, *describe*, *discuss*, *explain*, *evaluate*, *illustrate*, *justify*, *state*, and *summarize*.

Academic language skills include all four language modes in daily content lessons. Students learn not just vocabulary and grammar but also important concepts and skills using academic language. In addition, they learn language functions important for specific curricular areas, such as analyzing, evaluating, justifying, and persuading.

The Language of Mathematics Language difficulties for English learners lie in vocabulary, syntax, semantics, and discourse. Vocabulary in mathematics includes technical words such as *numerator*, *divisor*, and *exponent*. Words such as *regroup*, *factor*, and *table* have a meaning different from everyday usage. Two or more mathematical concepts may combine to form a different concept: *line segment*, *cross multiply*. A variety of terms can signal the same mathematical operation: *Add*, *and*, *plus*, *sum*, *combine*, and *increased by* all represent addition (Dale & Cuevas, 1992). Sentence structures may involve complex syntax: “_____ is to _____ as _____ is to _____” and “_____ is percent of _____.” Statements must be translated into logical symbols before problems can be completed, posing additional linguistic difficulty.

Problems with meaning (semantics) occur when natural language becomes the language of mathematics. For example, in the problem “Five times a number is two more than ten times the number,” students must recognize that “a number” and “the number” refer to the same quantity.

Abbreviations and other math symbols may need to be interpreted. For example, *ft* for foot or the use of the apostrophe may be confusing for students, especially those who were previously educated in the metric system. Vocabulary charts that include the use of abbreviations and symbols can be placed around the classroom to help students remember. Teachers must be aware of these language differences and mediate the transition in learning a new language to express mathematical concepts.

The Language of Science The four major language areas (vocabulary, syntax, semantics, discourse features) detailed in the section on mathematics are also relevant for science. Students not only have to learn scientific definitions, but they must also learn complex syntactic structures, which include passive voice, multiple embeddings, and long noun phrases.

A number of types of text structures are common in science content materials. The *cause/effect* structure links reasons with results or actions with their consequences. The *compare/contrast* structure examines the similarities and differences between concepts. The *time-order* structure shows a sequential relationship over the passage of time. To assist in their comprehension, students can receive special training in following written instructions for procedures or experiments.

ELD must be an objective in all science instruction. Teachers should review vocabulary terms to be used in a lesson before beginning, including the names of equipment and activities that will be used; scientific definitions of some common words (e.g., *energy*, *speed*, *work*); and new content words (e.g., *acceleration*, *inertia*). Students need to be taught text processing techniques (how to take notes, how to reread text for answers to study questions, how to interpret charts and picture captions) and then held to a high level of recall about the information they read. To assist their learning of scientific language, students can receive special training in following written instructions for procedures or experiments and in using glossaries. If students are engaged in hands-on activities in which they discuss concepts and content vocabulary in a genuine communicative context, they are more likely to absorb the truth of a scientific hypothesis or the meaning of scientific data.

The Language of Social Studies Because history itself has taken place in many languages, a strong social studies curriculum builds on dual-language skills. Students can use communication skills in two languages to gather oral histories from their families and communities. Their own family histories can teach them firsthand about complex historical issues. For more information about oral history projects, read “*Junior Historians: Doing Oral History with ESL and Bilingual Students*” (Olmedo, 1993).

As a discipline, social studies is concept-rich in ideas that may be difficult to depict in visuals. Student interaction is necessary for concept acquisition and subsequent application in different situations. Inquiry skills that are used first in the classroom and then in the community help students practice what they are learning in authentic situations (Sunal & Haas, 2005).

The Language of Music Music is a universal language. All cultures make music, expressing their cultural heritage in the particular sounds they make. However, music has its own language that requires specific understanding before an individual can become a proficient performer. For example, words such as *jazz*, *pitch*, *atonality*, and *folk music* are important technical concepts specific to music; if not taught within the proper context, they may pose a challenge for many English learners.

Music can also be used to teach concepts in other content domains. A first-grade lesson teaches opposites through music. Students listen to a story about opposites, which they then discuss before seeking opposites in music, using the books *Elmo's Big Lift and Look Book* and *Pooh Popping Opposites* and the music tapes *Down on Grandpa's Farm* and *Lullaby and Goodnight*. After a warm-up in which the teacher asks students, "What are opposites?" and "How do we find them?" the teacher reads books that illustrate the concept, asking students for some more examples and stating some pairs that are not opposites. Then the teacher plays tapes of songs that show opposites: fast/slow, number of instruments or people singing, etc.). For assessment, students listen to two more tape selections and write the opposites found.

Language in the Visual Arts Artists have specific ways of doing art, and there is a language to express those ways. Part of an effective visual arts education involves exposing students to appropriate language that describes artistic expression and creates a common language in the community of artists. Accomplished teaching, particularly with English learners, requires explicit teaching of words such as *movement*, *medium*, or *organic*. Art lends itself to contextualization of terms but still demands careful and skillful teaching to connect language and art.

Scaffolded Content Instruction

Each content domain has particular ways of presenting content, including differences between elementary and secondary methods. Scaffolded teaching approaches support learning in various content areas at both elementary and secondary levels.

Elementary Mathematics Adapting math instruction for English learners takes many forms. Table 5.12 shows how math centers set up to teach multiplication in the mainstream classroom can be adapted for English learners.

Secondary Mathematics: The Three-Phase Pattern Many mathematics teachers follow a three-phase pattern. The first phase involves the introduction, demonstration, and explanation of the concept or strategy by the teacher, followed by an interactive questioning segment, in which the teacher establishes how well students are grasping the concept. The second phase involves guided practice, in which students make the transition from teacher guidance to student supporting techniques that can include coaching, prompting, cueing, and monitoring student performance. The third phase allows students to work independently. If students are having difficulty during independent practice, they can receive more guided practice.

Further research in secondary mathematics teaching suggests the importance of making short- and long-term goals clear, as well as explaining to students the usefulness of each

TABLE 5.12 Adapting Math Centers for English Learners: Multiplication Station Activities

Unadapted Center	Suggested Adaptations
1. In Shopping Spree, students make purchases from a list of items, spending exactly \$25 for their combination of items.	Directions can be in pictorial form.
2. In Circles and Stars, students use dice to play a multiplication game. The roll of the first die determines the number of circles the student will draw. The second roll, using a different colored die, indicates the number of stars the student should draw in each circle. The student then writes a number sentence that reflects the roll of the dice and the product (the total number of stars drawn).	A peer or older tutor can be stationed at the center to explain directions in a mutual first language.
3. In Comparison Game, students use a deck of cards from which the face cards have been removed. Aces are equal to one. Students draw two cards each and use the numbers to create a multiplication number sentence and the product of the two numbers. A “more or less” spinner is used to determine which student’s product wins for each round.	A pair of students can observe while another pair plays until they get the idea.

Source: Adapted from <http://mathforum.org/t2t/message.taco?thread=5024&message=4>.

TABLE 5.13 Mathematics Teaching Principles for English Learners

Teaching Principle	Description
Encourage curiosity.	Plan activities that stimulate creativity and nurture students’ sense of exploration
Connect the hand and the brain.	Use experiences that help students make abstract concepts concrete.
Link to “funds of knowledge.”	Using mathematic examples that families might use in daily life to solve real-life problems.
Encourage both spoken and written mathematics expression.	Students should be provided opportunities to practice and express their mathematical knowledge orally and in writing, perhaps using sentence frames.
“Stretch” students with challenging activities.	Mathematics is a subject area with its own academic language, with activities involving inquiry, problem solving, and higher thinking.
Offer variety in problem-solving experiences and information representation.	Teachers should plan challenges that are nonroutine and open-ended; for example, math problems that may have various correct solutions and answers, and answers that can be represented in multiple ways.

mathematical concept. Projects are very effective, although long projects need to be used with discretion. Table 5.13 shows additional strategic approaches for teaching mathematics to English learners.

Elementary Science The important idea in science instruction is to adopt a problem-solving approach featuring questions that are both comprehensible and interesting. Students can be assisted to solve problems in science by developing a personal set of learning strategies. Teachers can help students describe the thinking they use to come up with solutions and praise innovative techniques they apply. Students can share their processes with one another, resulting in multiple ways of approaching a problem. Teachers can also discuss with students the biographies of famous scientists, showing the perseverance it took to solve the problems they addressed.

Secondary Science Alternative means of representing information is important in secondary science instruction. T-charts and other graphic organizers are ways to train students to translate verbal information from texts and lectures into mental structures for purposes of memorization as well as understanding. Pictures are important sources of information, whether from texts or supplementary sources. In summary, any method of noting and organizing details or creating and testing hypotheses furthers the goals of science inquiry.

Elementary Literature Many graphic organizers are available for use in scaffolding literature instruction: character trait charts, sequence-of-events outlines, cause-and-effect diagrams, setting description maps, and so forth. One key method of scaffolding literature that can be used in other content areas is the *cognitive apprentice model*. Children learn to read from teachers, but they also learn from teachers to enjoy reading. Teachers can model why they like certain genres, why a certain turn of phrase is delightful, why a plot is compelling, and so forth. Students then become the apprentices of teachers' thinking about literature—an apprenticeship in literature appreciation.

Secondary Literature Building on the love of reading that is the foundation of elementary instruction, students at the secondary level must balance consumption with production. It is one thing to read poetry and entirely another to write it, to struggle firsthand with the freshness of images, the discipline of meter, the lure of rhyme. To appreciate literature, one must be willing to dive in, to create and re-create in the leading genres of the day. Therefore, scaffolding literature is intrinsically bound up with creative production of language.

Integral to production of language is scaffolded creativity in the primary language. Students who create in two languages are addressing a peer audience that appreciates the effort. Even students with a primary language not understood by peers can share the poetic sound and meaning (in translation). All creativity stimulates the common underlying proficiency that makes language a human treasure.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Primary-Language Poetry

Judith Casey (2004) encourages students to share native language with classmates during a poetry activity, in which students bring in and read aloud a poem in their first language. On Poetry Day, the atmosphere of the class is charged. No one knows exactly what to expect, but the students are excited. Amazingly, hearing one another read in their first language lets the students see each other in a new light. The class is forever changed as students recognize the value, contributions, and abilities of their classmates. (pp. 51–52)

Elementary Social Studies Scaffolded social studies starts with the timeline and the map as the basic graphic organizers. Students need a firm understanding of when and where events took place. Any mental device is useful that helps students visualize when and where. If the computer program Google Earth can be displayed from the computer screen onto a large surface at the beginning of each lesson, students can start “zoomed in” at their own school and then “zoom out” to the picture of the earth in space, move the map to the location of the day’s lesson in history or geography, and then “zoom in” to locate any feature under discussion. This grounds students in their own place before making the transition to another.

Secondary History/Social Science The reading load in secondary history often needs to be scaffolded. Bradley and Bradley (2004, n.p.) offered several useful methods to help students monitor their comprehension during reading.

- *Analyzing captions.* Look at the picture captions and ask, “How does this tie into the reading?”
- *Turning subheads into questions.* By rephrasing a subheading into a question, readers are able to predict upcoming content.
- *Making margin notes.* Using small sticky notes, students write new vocabulary words they encounter—even words not in the content glossary.

A useful scaffolding technique for secondary social studies, the question–answer relationships (QAR) model (Raphael, 1986), describes four kinds of questions: Right There (direct quote from the text), Think and Search (the answer must be inferred from several text passages), Author and You (text integrated with personal experience), and On Your Own (drawn from personal experiences). Each question requires a different set of text processing or thinking resources. This method can be taught in one lesson, and thereafter students can learn to classify questions and locate answers independently.

BEST PRACTICE Teaching Note-Taking Skills

Better note takers produce greater academic achievement in middle and high school. Here are tips on taking better notes:

- Date and title notes at the top of the page.
- Split the page: Keep lecture notes on the left side and organizational and summary notes on the right side.
- Skip lines to show change of topic.
- Apply the same organization as the lecturer to number subpoints or mark details.
- Use underlining, circling, or highlighting to indicate important ideas.

Source: Adapted from Stahl, King, & Henk, 1991



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Collaboration in Middle School Social Studies

At Gerona Middle School (pseudonym) in a medium-sized California agricultural town, more than half of the students are English learners, some from migrant labor families. The majority of students are academically underprepared according to their scores on standardized tests.

In a recent unit about the Crusades, students wrote expository essays in which they described, justified, and persuaded. At the end of each group activity and each unit, students wrote a final essay, making connections between their group activities and the central theme of the unit. Content area and language arts teachers coordinated interdisciplinary responsibility for this writing, in what is known as sustained-content instruction.

Source: Adapted from Bunch, Abram, Lotan, & Valdés, 2001

Guided and Independent Practice That Promotes Students' Active Language Use

Guided Practice Teachers working in mixed-ability classrooms can plan group activities that help students in different ways. Students can work in homogeneous groups when the goal of the activity is accuracy and in heterogeneous groups when the goal is fluency. For example, to develop accuracy, first-grade students can listen to a reading of the Chinese folktale “The Magic Sieve.” A group of beginning students can retell the story using pictures and then talk about the pictures. Intermediate students can retell the story to the teacher or a cross-age tutor. The teacher writes their story for them, and then students can reread, illustrate, and rearrange the story from sentence strips. A group of more proficient students can create a new group story.

At the secondary level, as students work in class, teachers can use various strategies to guide their learning. Groups of students can work together to create visual summaries or chapter reviews of textbook content. Specific students can each take on the persona of a literary character or historic personage and provide background for other students' questions throughout the reading. Charts, graphs, pictures, and symbols can trace the development of images, ideas, and themes.

BEST PRACTICE Guided Practice in Reading Literature

Scaffolded activities help students as they work with text. Reading aloud as students follow along can give them an opportunity to hear a proficient reader, get a sense of the format and story line, and listen to the teacher think-aloud about the reading. In the think-aloud, teachers can model how they monitor a sequence of events, identify foreshadowing and flashback, visualize a setting, analyze character and motive, comprehend mood and theme, and recognize irony and symbolism. To help students develop a sense of inflection, pronunciation, rhythm, and stress, a commercial tape recording of a work of literature can be obtained for listening and review, or native-English-speaking students or adult volunteers may be willing to make a recording.

Maintaining the First Language in Guided Practice Students can be encouraged to use and develop their native language during guided practice. Aides and tutors can help explain difficult passages and guide students in summarizing their understanding. Native-language books, magazines, films, and other materials relating to the topic or theme of the lesson can support and even augment students' learning. They can also maintain reading logs or journals in their native language.

Independent Practice Computers and other resources can be used to extend practice in various content domains. Many English learners are unfamiliar with the basic tools associated with mathematics (rulers, protractors, calculators, computers, etc.). After demonstrating each, teachers can provide students with real-life opportunities to use them. For example, students are told that the playground needs to be repaved. They first have to estimate the area, then check their estimates with the actual tools (using both standard and metric measuring instruments, as they will not know which system the parking company uses), and then use calculators to find the percentage of error in their estimates. Computer programs can also help to provide estimates and calculations.

BEST PRACTICE Independent Reactions to Works of Literature

- Authentic written responses encourage students to reflect on the piece of literature and to express their interpretations to an audience beyond the classroom.
- Students write poems and share them with other classes or parents at a Poetry Night.
- Student journalists write reviews of literature works for the school or classroom newspaper or act as movie critics and review the film version of a text studied in class. They can then compare the differences and draw conclusions about the pros and cons of the different media.
- Students write letters to authors to express their reactions to the story or to pen pals recommending certain pieces of literature.
- Favorite parts of selections can be rewritten as a play and enacted for other classes as a way to encourage other students to read that piece of literature.
- Students can plan a mock television game show and devise various formats that include ideas from the literature studied.

BEST PRACTICE Independent Questioning Strategies

“Question swap” (Gregory & Kuzmich, 2005) is a useful device for helping students personalize social studies. For any given topic, students write out two questions each (with answers) and then swap one question with the first partner, each writing out answers. The questioners then do the same with the second question. This process restructures information from verbal input to mental schemata. The questions are the scaffold. The teacher should gather up the questions and answers at the end and skim quickly to clear up any misrepresentation.

Resources for Independent Practice

Across the content areas, teachers can help make resources available for students as they approach learning tasks autonomously. This helps students take responsibility for their own learning.

**CLASSROOM GLIMPSE****Using Multiple Resources for Independent Research**

Students studying a fifth-grade unit on settlement of the West can examine the legal issues involved in the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo, compare the various cultures that came into contact in the Southwest, delve into the history of land grant titles, and pursue many more issues of interest. Through filmstrips, films, videos, computer simulations, literature, nonfiction texts, and oral discussions, students develop conceptual knowledge. Such a unit incorporates history, geography, sociology, economics, values, information-seeking skills, group participation, and perhaps dramatic talents as students act out the signing of treaties and other cultural events.

Math Resources for Elementary English Learners Almost all math programs at the primary level are supported by sets of manipulative materials; however, manipulatives are not a magic substitute for intensive, multimodal instruction that ensures all students acquire mathematics concepts at every stage. The Internet is a vast source of problems, contests, enrichment, and teacher resources to supplement classroom instruction.

Family Math is a program that focuses on families learning mathematics together in support of the elementary math curriculum. Adults and children come to Family Math classes together once a week for several weeks, doing activities in small groups, with two or three families working together. As a follow-up, family members use inexpensive materials found in the home (bottle caps, toothpicks, coins) to practice ideas that were presented in class. The website www.techteachers.com/mathweb/familymath/index.htm offers resources for Family Math activities.

Math Resources for Secondary English Learners The Internet provides numerous sites that are both resources for teachers and opportunities for students to practice mathematical skills. Table 5.14 features several websites recommended by some of the mathematics teachers with whom I work, including their descriptions of how these sites help them in working with English learners.

TABLE 5.14 Websites for Teaching Secondary Mathematics to English Learners

Website	Description
www.DiscoverySchool.com	An excellent supplement to world history videos. The site offers vocabulary words and terms used in the video, rubrics, and a list of additional resources.
http://atozteacherstuff.com	Contains many ELD lessons specifically designed for all content areas, especially for English learners in U.S. history and government.
www.eduref.org/Virtual/Lessons	An easy to use site, containing social studies lessons for English learners.

Internet Social Studies Resources for English Learners Classroom teachers can combine the enormous range of materials from the Internet with other instructional resources and methods. Field trips via the Internet include visiting the White House (www.whitehouse.gov), exhibitions of African and pre-Columbian Native-American art (www.nmai.si.edu), or the Egyptian pyramids (www.pbs.org/wgbh/nova/pyramid). Many of the virtual field trip sites are designed specifically for education, featuring lesson plans and interactive student activities (see www.internet4classrooms.com). Students can also create their own virtual field trips of local historical sites, or even of their school. Table 5.15 offers selected websites for teaching secondary social studies to English learners.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

A Historic Website

Ms. Rosie Beccera Davies's third-grade class at Washington Elementary School in Montebello, California, made a historical website for their community, beginning with the Gabrielino (Tongva) Indians, and including many local historical sites.

TABLE 5.15 Websites for Teaching Secondary Social Studies to English Learners

Strategy	How It Helps
Identify similarities and differences	Helps students compare, create metaphors, and use analogies (comparing the U.S. Cabinet to a school can clarify the concept of analogy); builds vocabulary, comprehension.
Historical investigation	Gives students an active role in understanding history and allows them to pursue a question using strategies that work for them; focuses on students' interests; allows students flexibility; encourages self-monitoring of progress.
Inventions	Inventions are/have been an important part of U.S. history; students are able to demonstrate comprehension, knowledge, and creativity within a historical framework while reliving history.
Role-playing	Adolescents are quite dramatic and like to be in "someone else's shoes"; students learn about others' perspectives while using language, gestures, and body language to show their understanding.
Group work	Collaborative projects or assignments help students to solve problems together as they hear and use history-related CALP in a low-anxiety environment; structured group work addresses status issues so that "everyone participates, no one dominates" and English learners have chances to talk.
Decision making	This provides for contemplation and discussion of concepts central to many historical issues; provides students a chance to hear and use language to make decisions.
"What if" stories	Help students use language to create hypothetical predictions about history: for example, what if Columbus had not sailed to America?
Puzzles, riddles	Students see representations of historical concepts in different formats that engage and incorporate multiple intelligences.
Explanations with concrete referents	Help students understand abstract concepts.
Alternative representation formats	Different ways of presenting facts; for example, graphic organizers, maps, tables, charts, and graphs can reduce verbiage and identify key concepts in a lesson; this also models the different means historians use to gather evidence.
Summarizing and note taking	An important skill of historians; allows students to make sense of extensive text and lecture by listening for key words and identifying relevant information.
Preteach assignments	Helps students anticipate key concepts before reading assignment.
Prepare for exams	Teacher can model how to use textbook features such as chapter goals and overviews, summaries, and glossaries; this also helps students self-monitor comprehension and progress.
Provide learning, reading, and study support	Helps students process text and use language to voice their ideas; puts them in role of experts. Teachers arrange jigsaw groups to read text, assigning students to groups and making groups of students experts on specific portions of reading; students read and discuss together; teacher reviews and addresses specific issues with the entire class.
Word association	Vocabulary enrichment; teaching students to hear a word and associate it with an image helps comprehension and retention.
Listen for specific information	Teaches students explicitly what is important in a lecture, text, or historical document; students use teacher-created graphic organizers or fill-in-the-blank lecture notes.

Science Resources Outside of the School The school science program often extends beyond the walls of the school to the resources of the community. Teachers can work with local personnel, such as those at science-rich centers (museums, industries, universities, etc.), to plan for the use of exhibits and educational programs that enhance the study of a particular topic. In addition, the physical environment in and around the school can be used as a living laboratory for the study of natural phenomena in project-based and service-learning activities.

Resources for Music When adapting music lessons for English learners, primary-language music audiotapes are available through Shen's Books at www.shens.com, including tapes in Spanish, Hmong, Vietnamese, Cambodian, Korean, Japanese, and Mandarin, as well as tapes from cultures other than the native cultures of the students.

Technology is increasingly an important resource in music education. A powerful application for music education is the use of computers, allowing students to improvise, make arrangements, and access vast libraries of recorded music. When instruments are connected to electronic instruments and computers, they can be used to record, transcribe, and even permit practice performances.

Musical and cultural resources abound in all communities, and skillful music educators tap into these resources by working with parents, churches, and other civic organizations. Local musicians, professionals, music faculty at local universities, family members, and students at colleges and universities can conduct sessions and workshops in conjunction with the regular instructional program.

Formative Assessment and Reteaching Content

The hands-on nature of problem solving in science can naturally align with performance-based assessment. By performing actual science activities, students are actively demonstrating the skills for which assessment holds them responsible. The use of formative assessment involves teachers in the role of offering guidance and feedback so the given skills can be accomplished.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Checking Exit Comprehension in Science

Mr. Petersen uses exit slips as a strategy just before students leave their middle school science class. He provides a preprinted prompt, such as "I'm still not clear about . . .," to help students pinpoint what is still fuzzy for them about the day's lesson. Students can reflect on what they have just learned, show their thinking process, and prepare for continued learning on the topic. Teachers can use this information to select what to revisit, elaborate, or expand on in the next lesson.

Source: Adapted from Fisher et al., 2007

Summative Assessment of Content Lessons

Multiple strategies can be used to assess students' mastery of language objectives and grade-level content objectives across diverse content domains.

Assessment in Mathematics Although traditional assessment in mathematics focuses on the mastery of algorithms, many alternative forms can be used to measure mathematical thinking and problem solving. Authentic assessment allows the teacher to evaluate mathematics understanding while students are actively engaged in such learning activities as running a school store or simulating trade on the stock market. Assessments should allow for differences in understanding, creativity, and accomplishment. Flexible expectations permit different pacing for students with basic versus advanced math skills.

BEST PRACTICE**Alternative Means of Demonstrating Math Knowledge**

Students can use various methods to show math learning:

- Produce or find three different drawings for the number x .
- Write three story problems that have the number x as an answer.
- Make up a pattern and explain it.
- Interview ten people to find out the favorite ice cream flavors and then invent a way to show this information to the class.

Source: Adapted from Rowan & Bourne, 1994

Assessment in Visual and Performing Arts Instruction and assessment go hand in hand in the visual and performing arts. The teacher and the artist interact and collaborate in ongoing feedback, with self-monitoring and self-assessment being a part of the daily experience. Portfolios are very common assessment tools used by artists in the performing arts because they track individual growth. They can help high school students, for example, apply for college entrance to an art institute or for employment in the visual arts.

Student exhibitions are also a way that teachers can create safe opportunities for assessment, whereby peers and other adults give feedback on completed works or works-in-progress. These exhibitions can take place in the classroom, and rubrics can be developed by the class to evaluate basic elements in a work.

BEST PRACTICE**Assessment As Musical Performance**

Showcasing musical talent by means of group and individual performance is a time-honored assessment of musical involvement. The excitement of performance and the responsibility of individuals toward their peers and audience teach maturity and poise. Bridging cultural gaps by offering music in many languages helps to involve the families and community in preparing for, attending, and enjoying concerts.

Assessment in Social Studies Assessment of all students must be equitable in a social studies program. English learners can show proficiency in multiple ways: portfolios, performance assessments, written reports, role-plays, and research projects. When high-stakes educational decisions for individual students are made, the decisions should be based on a variety of assessments, rather than on a single test score. Assessments of students in social

TABLE 5.16 Strategies for Adapting Curricula in Secondary Social Studies

Strategy	How It Helps
Identify similarities and differences	Helps students compare, create metaphors, and use analogies (comparing the U.S. Cabinet to a school can clarify the concept of analogy); builds vocabulary, comprehension.
Historical investigation	Gives students an active role in understanding history and allows them to pursue a question using strategies that work for them; focuses on students' interests; allows students flexibility; encourages self-monitoring of progress.
Inventions	Inventions are/have been an important part of U.S. history; students are able to demonstrate comprehension, knowledge, and creativity within a historical framework while reliving history.
Role-playing	Adolescents are quite dramatic and like to be in "someone else's shoes"; students learn about others' perspectives while using language, gestures, and body language to show their understanding.
Group work	Collaborative projects or assignments help students to solve problems together as they hear and use history-related CALP in a low-anxiety environment; structured group work addresses status issues so that "everyone participates, no one dominates" and English learners have chances to talk.
Decision making	This provides for contemplation and discussion of concepts central to many historical issues; provides students a chance to hear and use language to make decisions.
"What if" stories	Help students use language to create hypothetical predictions about history: for example, what if Columbus had not sailed to America?
Puzzles, riddles	Students see representations of historical concepts in different formats that engage and incorporate multiple intelligences.
Explanations with concrete referents	Help students understand abstract concepts.
Alternative representation formats	Different ways of presenting facts; for example, graphic organizers, maps, tables, charts, and graphs can reduce verbiage and identify key concepts in a lesson; this also models the different means historians use to gather evidence.
Summarizing and note taking	An important skill of historians; allows students to make sense of extensive text and lecture by listening for key words and identifying relevant information.
Preteach assignments	Helps students anticipate key concepts before reading assignment.
Prepare for exams	Teacher can model how to use textbook features such as chapter goals and overviews, summaries, and glossaries; this also helps students self-monitor comprehension and progress.
Provide learning, reading, and study support	Helps students process text and use language to voice their ideas; puts them in role of experts. Teachers arrange jigsaw groups to read text, assigning students to groups and making groups of students experts on specific portions of reading; students read and discuss together; teacher reviews and addresses specific issues with the entire class.
Word association	Vocabulary enrichment; teaching students to hear a word and associate it with an image helps comprehension and retention.
Listen for specific information	Teaches students explicitly what is important in a lecture, text, or historical document; students use teacher-created graphic organizers or fill-in-the-blank lecture notes.

Members of the community can share cultural activities such as music and art with students.



studies should be designed and used to further the goal of educating students to be active citizens in a democratic society (see Chapter 8 for more on assessment).

Table 5.16 presents strategies for adapting curricula in secondary school social studies. Similar strategies may apply in other content areas. These strategies represent a sample of SDAIE methods.

Instructional Needs Beyond the Classroom

To be successful in their academic courses, English learners often need assistance from organizations and volunteers outside of the classroom. This assistance can come from academic summer programs, additional instructional services such as after-school programs and peer tutoring, and Dial-a-Teacher for homework help in English and in the primary language. Support in the affective domain may include special home visits by released time teachers, counselors, or outreach workers and informal counseling by teachers. Monitoring of academic progress by counselors also helps to encourage students with language needs.

BEST PRACTICE

Meeting Instructional Needs Beyond the Classroom

Escalante and Dirmann (1990) explicated the main components of the Garfield High School advanced placement (AP) calculus course in which Escalante achieved outstanding success in preparing Hispanic students to pass the AP calculus examination. Escalante's success was

not due solely to outstanding classroom teaching; he was the organizer of a broad effort to promote student success. In his classroom, he set the parameters: He made achievement a game for the students, the “opponent” being the Educational Testing Service’s examination; he coached students to hold up under the pressure of the contest and work hard to win; and he held students accountable for attendance and productivity. But beyond this work in the classroom was the needed community support.

Community individuals and organizations donated copiers, computers, transportation, and souvenirs such as special caps and team jackets. Parents became involved in a campaign against drug use. This helped Escalante emphasize proper conduct, respect, and value for education. Past graduates served as models of achievement. They gave pep talks to students and acted as hosts in visits to high-tech labs. The support from these other individuals combined to give students more help and encouragement than could be provided by the classroom teacher alone. Students saw concentrated, caring, motivated effort directed toward them—something they had rarely before experienced. The results were dramatized in the unforgettable feature film *Stand and Deliver*.

Teacher Commitment

Although technological tools and techniques for ELD and content area teaching are changing rapidly, what remains constant is the need for English learners to receive high-quality instruction that permits them access to the cognitive academic language they need for school success. Teachers who are dedicated to student achievement are key.

Although in present-day U.S. classrooms, the majority of English learners were born in the United States, often teachers will find students from all around the world in their ELD classes. In university towns, there are children of international graduate students and professors; in border towns, there are students from the bordering country; in industrial cities, there are children of experts and blue-collar workers who are drawn there by means of global trade. Teachers often find themselves with students of both familiar and uncommon languages and cultures. If teachers are the professional learners of the world, students are their apprentices. Students are not only learning academic content, but with their teachers as leaders, are learning about how to interact with the world.

In SDAIE classrooms, it is not only the students who are learning. Successful teachers themselves are open to learning about their students, learning about their students’ culture(s) and language(s), and also getting to know families and the local community; teachers are not only *willing* to learn but also *expecting* to learn.



ELD and content learning go hand in hand in classrooms that support high-quality instruction for English learners. These classrooms feature multiple modalities for instruction and a rich mix of stimulating materials and linguistic interaction. Most of all, classrooms that foster high achievement have teachers who are committed to enriching language and promoting a high level of content learning using SDAIE to make instruction comprehensible and meaningful.



English-Language Oracy Development

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter, you should be able to . . .

- Describe the basics of communicative interaction for English learners and explore strategies in the classroom that help English learners build basic interpersonal communication skills;
- Explain how English learners can use the listening process to build comprehension as they listen for purposes of gaining information and communicating with others; and
- Identify how English-language-development standards outline the types of speaking and listening that English learners need to acquire for academic study, and how a process approach to speaking can help learners to acquire standards-based content knowledge.

Oracy in English—learning to speak and listen—makes it possible for students to succeed in school. English learners already know a great deal about using oral language in their primary language. They know how to share their thoughts and opinions with others and how to use language strategically to get what they want, be recognized, take turns, and so forth. Bourdieu (1977) called this knowledge “linguistic capital,” a part of the resources that English learners bring to schooling. The challenge is for English learners to acquire linguistic capital in the language of mainstream schooling—English.

Of course, if English learners acquire an English dialect characteristic of the middle class and are backed by a houseful of cultural tools such as atlases, encyclopedias, magazines, Internet access, and other reference materials, the oral language they use is even more valuable as linguistic capital that can be “cashed in” for academic gain. Ideally, “social-bilingual” capital can be acquired by additive

bilingualism—the ability to build second-language acquisition on a firm foundation of primary-language skills. In this way, the English learner is a fluid consumer and producer of bilingual, bicultural social capital.

The knowledge about life coded in the learner's primary language is worth quite a lot—if the teacher views this knowledge as a resource that can be used to promote academic success. Oracy that is directly connected to the community strengthens an individual's cultural capital. Children's intellectual development is built on verbal interaction in the first language. According to Vygotsky (1981), children learn to engage in higher-level thinking by first listening and speaking. This has profound implications for the education of English learners: The more that students use language within the social context of the classroom, the better they will build academic thinking skills augmented by school and community funds of knowledge. Teaching strategies provide imaginative ways to use oral language to further develop students' intellects. The following sections discuss ways to teach English oracy.

The Focus on Communicative Interaction

A focus on English-language development (ELD) is essential for English learners, who must improve their English while learning grade-level academic content. ELD includes speaking/oral language development and listening, reading (both content area reading and literature), and writing. To develop learners' English, teachers need an array of strategies in both literacy and oracy.

Current research emphasizes three fundamental principles of oracy development. First, that meaningful and purposeful communicative interactions (both oral and written) promote learners' ELD and content area learning. Second, the language that is *learned* takes precedence over the language that is *taught*. Language and academic assessment together play a key role in documenting what is actually learned. Finally, the learner's interlanguage is the basis for instruction. Empirical teaching takes note of learners' needs and instruction is planned accordingly. Each of these ideas is explored in turn.

What Is Communicative Competence?

In 1972, Hymes introduced the term *communicative competence* to emphasize the idea that the use of language in a social setting is the key to language performance. Current theories of language have moved away from a strictly grammatical view of language (language as structure) to the more inclusive concept of language for communicative purposes. The competent speaker is recognized as one who knows when, where, and how to use language appropriately.

Canale (1983) identified four components of communicative competence. *Grammatical competence* focuses on the skills and knowledge necessary to speak and write accurately. *Socio-linguistic competence* involves knowing how to produce and understand language in different social contexts, taking into consideration such factors as the status of participants and the purposes and conventions of interaction. *Discourse competence* is the ability to combine and connect utterances (spoken) and sentences (written) into a meaningful whole. *Strategic competence* helps the language user repair breakdowns in communication and enhance the effectiveness of communication. Together, these aspects of language help speakers of their first language (L1) and second language (L2) to produce well-formed utterances that are appropriate to the context and create strategic, coherent discourse.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Discourse Competence in Kindergarten Students

An example of discourse competence can be seen in the following conversation between two kindergarten boys, one a native-English speaker (Andrew) and the other an English learner (Rolando). Rolando responds appropriately (though not kindly) to Andrew's request and adds information about his decision at the proper moment. This conversation shows both boys' discourse competence in conveying their meaning and using ploys to get their way, even though Andrew doesn't get to "play."

Andrew: Can I play?

Rolando: No.

Andrew: There're only three people here.

Rolando: Kevin went to the bathroom.

Andrew: Can I take his place 'til he comes back?

Rolando: You're not playing.

The Cognitive Perspective

Current language teaching is being shaped by several important ideas. First, the shift toward a cognitive paradigm means that *learning* has taken precedence over *teaching*. What the student *learns* is the important outcome of the teaching–learning process, not what the teacher *teaches*. Second, learning is maximized when it matches what takes place naturally in the brain. Third, thematic integration across content areas unifies the language processes of reading, writing, speaking, listening, thinking, and acting. Therefore, current perspectives on second-language learning align with brain-compatible instruction.

The cognitive perspective emphasizes assessment as the way to ensure that learning has taken place. Additionally, one sees the strong push to develop students' cognitive-academic language proficiency. Last, the emphasis on acquisition of cognitive tools—learning strategies—as a key part of each lesson is a cognitive perspective. The idea of cognitive tools plays an increasing role in current understanding of oracy as well as literacy (Egan & Gajdamaschko, 2003).

An Interlanguage Perspective

Learners of a second language have only one starting point: their primary language. Therefore, every understanding they have of the second language is filtered through their existing knowledge. As they become more familiar with the second language (in this case, English), they move toward learning that builds on their new knowledge base. Until they have that new knowledge, however, the language they produce is a hybrid form, an interlanguage (Selinker, 1972, 1991). The term *interlanguage* means that the communication produced by a person learning a second language will have the quality of intermediacy; it is a transitional phenomenon that may or may not develop into proficiency in the target language.

Interlanguage theory asserts that the learner's language should be viewed as creative and rule governed. An ELD curriculum that elicits creative response allows the learner to show the current state of his or her interlanguage. The view that learners have intermediary language

modes that are not flawed misrepresentations of English, but rather are natural, creative expressions of the learner's innate language "genius," offers a refreshing opportunity for teachers to view second-language learning in a positive light.

The errors that the learner makes (systematic errors show a pattern of thinking, and are not random mistakes) are a necessary part of the learning process and provide a source of information for the teacher. Thus, the learner's interlanguage (and no two learners' interlanguages are identical) is the foundation for ELD teaching that respects and delights in individual creativity, channeled through the ELD standards.

A Translanguaging Perspective

One drawback of the interlanguage perspective is the view of the primary language and the target language—English—as two separate language systems, with interlanguage as a set of stepping-stones between the two. In contrast, Garcia (2009) calls English learners "emergent bilinguals"—and envisions the two languages of a bilingual person united in one linguistic system that contains features of both languages as a part of an integrated repertoire. Garcia and Wei (2014) use this definition:

Translanguaging is an approach to the use of language, bilingualism and the education of bilinguals that considers the language practices of bilinguals not as two autonomous language systems as has been traditionally the case, but as one linguistic repertoire with features that have been societally constructed as belonging to two separate languages. (p. 2)

Translanguaging is a way to conceptualize dynamic bilingualism, which "suggests that the language practices of bilinguals are complex and interrelated; they do not emerge in a linear way or function separately since there is only one linguistic system" (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 14).

In bilingual classrooms, there are two forms of translanguaging, "natural translanguaging and official translanguaging" (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 91). The first one, *natural translanguaging*, is pupil-directed translanguaging, meaning that students use translanguaging to learn naturally in small groups or pairs. They use translanguaging for making meaning of, or understanding, the content. Some teachers also use natural translanguaging; for example, to ensure that students comprehend words.

For example, a teacher may speak in Spanish to a native-Spanish-speaking student to contrast the difference between "warm" as an adjective in English versus "to warm" as a verb, by explaining the difference between *caliente* and *calentar*, then remind the student that *frio* and *enfriar* are two different words in English, "cold" and "to chill." The teacher may then ask the student to use the words in new ways or in a new context. Students are thus using their entire linguistic lexicon, which speeds up their learning as they use two language systems in one linguistic repertoire with features from both languages. Thus natural translanguaging is a language practice for bilingual learners as well as a pedagogical strategy that teachers can use in bilingual classrooms "to foster language and literacy development" (Hornberger & Link, 2012, p. 242).

In contrast, official translanguaging pedagogy contains planned, organized, and structured actions or activities for teachers in communication with emergent bilingual learners. Translanguaging pedagogy refers to "building on bilingual students' language practices flexibly in order to develop new understandings and new language practices, including those deemed academic standard practices" (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 92).

Teachers use official translanguaging pedagogy for important reasons, such as explaining the difficult part of a topic or text. This helps students gain enhanced comprehension of a subject matter by using their full linguistic repertoire to understand the subject or write about

it. Translanguaging pedagogy also helps teachers to offer differentiated instruction to ensure that students engage cognitively and socially, drawing on their various backgrounds, education, and linguistic repertoires. Therefore, teachers become facilitators who set up instruction, and students are more in control of their own learning, rendering the learning experience more personalized and informative. In sum, teachers who teach in bilingual classrooms might use both natural translanguaging and official translanguaging, whether informally to clarify the meaning of words or complicated parts of a topic; or formally, to plan differentiated instruction for students by allowing them to draw on two languages to express their understanding.

Thus contemporary ELD teaching is woven of three parts—the emphasis on communication, the need to develop the learner’s cognitive academic language, and support for the learner’s developmental bilingual repertoire. These theoretical trends are amalgamated into a solid foundation for English-language oracy development.

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

A newcomer to the English language needs to learn basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) that permit adjustment to the routines of schooling and the comforts of peer interaction. The importance of BICS is that students can begin to understand and communicate with their teacher, develop and fine-tune their interpersonal skills, and start to overcome culture shock. School-age children use BICS to communicate basic needs to others or to share informal social interactions with peers. The focus in BICS is on getting across a message, with little regard for sentence structure and word choice. BICS need not be acquired before academic language; both are acquired simultaneously.

Cummins (1984) called BICS *context embedded* because factors apart from the linguistic code can furnish meaning. For example, one student asks another for an eraser: “Mine’s gone. You got one?” The student points to the pencil eraser and beckons for a loan. The item itself, rather than the language, provides the context. Other cues that add meaning to BICS in this situation are the tone of voice (requesting) and the “give me” gesture.

Helping Students Acquire BICS Teachers can encourage newcomers’ acquisition of basic social language in several ways. First, pairing a new student with a bilingual buddy who speaks the same primary language as well as English eases the pain of culture shock. Seating newcomers so that they can be involved with other pupils and participate with other students can help to keep the new students alert and interactive.

A “Newcomer Handbook” is helpful during the earliest stages of BICS acquisition. Students can help to create this orientation guide, with sections that might feature simple school rules and procedures, English phrases to use for various social functions (asking for help, volunteering for class jobs, etc.), advice for homework help, and a map of the school with bilingual labels.

Cooperative tasks of all kinds provide opportunities for students to speak with one another. Cooperative groups with mixed abilities, in which students are assigned well-defined roles, permit some measure of participation with certain duties that do not require high level of verbal ability in English. Box 6.1 summarizes ways to help students develop BICS in the classroom.

BICS Combined with Cognitive Language Throughout the school years, oral language activities need to balance an oracy focus on informal classroom discussions with specific training in conversations that are stimulating and thought provoking, with carefully sequenced instruction of academic vocabulary and thinking skills. It is these goals for which the instructional conversation (IC) discourse format is designed (see the section on IC at the end of this chapter).

Listening

Although listening may be seen as a “receptive” skill, it is by no means passive. According to the sociocognitive approach to learning, listening is an act of constructing meaning. Listeners draw on their store of background knowledge and their expectation of the message to be conveyed as they actively comprehend a conversation or oral presentation. The role of the teacher is to set up situations in which students can develop their own purposes and goals for listening, acquire the English that is most useful in their daily lives, feel a sense of purpose, and engage in real communication. More than 40 percent of daily communication time is spent listening (Burley-Allen, 1995), and teachers are becoming more aware that listening skills should be taught, rather than assuming that the skill develops itself.

BOX 6.1

Ways to Develop Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) in the Classroom

Encourage friendships between English-speaking students and newcomers.

- Classroom grouping is linguistically heterogeneous.
- Playground activities are structured for heterogeneity.
- Students may work on group projects and make new friends.
- Encourage parents to make friends (perhaps in after-school clubs).
- Younger siblings may be included.

Use flexible grouping for academic work.

- Students are exposed to a variety of linguistic models.
- If one speaker dominates the group, variety will give others a chance to be heard.
- Students can speak with others who speak more or less fluently.
- Structure groups so that everyone talks, including through presentations.

Project-based learning allows students to discuss plans together.

- Projects may permit different intelligences to shine.
- English learners may be strong contributors in nonverbal ways (e.g., drawing).
- Projects promote collaboration and sharing.

Cross-age tutoring encourages language growth.

- Students gain fluency by reading to younger children.
- Older students can read to younger students who need language models.
- Older students can supervise classroom learning centers.
- Cross-age combinations can be useful (sixth grader + third grader + two kindergartners).

Instructional conversations can help develop students' speaking skills.

- When the teacher is a conversant, conversations are more academic.
- The teacher is the best model for thinking skills.
- A skilled conversation leader can draw out shy speakers.
- The conversation models literate, intellectual behavior.

Interviews can encourage English use at home.

- A variety of survey formats are available.
- Students can survey friends and neighbors.
- Writing up the results or graphing allows students to practice other skills.

Listening can be divided into conversational listening and academic listening. For purposes of simplification, listening activities are discussed here under the categories of listening for beginning comprehension, listening to repeat, listening to understand, and listening for communication.

Listening for Beginning Comprehension

At the beginning level of language acquisition, the ELD objectives focus on demonstrating comprehension through active participation. During the initial “silent period,” learners actively listen as they segment the sound stream, absorb intonation patterns, and become comfortable with English. They demonstrate comprehension through nonverbal means. With this methodology, academic subjects can be included.

Listening is for the purpose of comprehension. For example, students can view a poster of animals in a barn. The teacher might ask a student in the beginning stage, “Are people *safe* around these tame animals?” (pointing to the sheep, cat, and calf). A nod as a response to the word *safe* indicates comprehension. The teacher could ask a student who is in the beginning stage, “Which odors do you like?” (pointing to the Sense of Smell poster). The student can show comprehension by pointing.

A “listening area” can be set up in which English learners can listen to books on tape, with picture books or models provided to support understanding of what is heard. Two such stations might be set up side by side so students can share this listening experience with a friend. It might be comforting to a child if the person recording the tape speaks English with the same accent heard in the primary-language community.

Listening to Repeat

At the early intermediate stage, best practice in ELD indicates a student should be able to participate in recitation, singing, and dramatics. For example, teachers use poems, nursery rhymes, and songs to introduce rhyming words, asking students to fill in the blanks at the ends of lines. In addition, teachers can read aloud books containing wordplay, alliteration, or tongue twisters, encouraging students to talk about how the author manipulates words. Other listening activities could include listening for focal stress or for syllables. Such activities help students hear the language and develop phonemic awareness.

Jones (2007) recommended some teacher-led “repeat after me” listening and speaking practice:

Some students may feel that repeating in chorus is childish and beneath them, but it’s an effective way of helping them to get their tongues around new phrases and expressions so that they can say them easily and comfortably. . . . A question like *What are we supposed to do?* needs to be mastered as a whole phrase, not as six separate words. It may take several repetitions for students to manage this. Repeating phrases in chorus helps students to copy the rhythm of each phrase and say it again and again without inhibition. (p. 23)

Chants provide rhythmic presentations of the sentence intonation patterns of English. “The rhythm, stress, and intonation pattern of the chant should be an *exact* replica of what the student would hear from a native speaker in natural conversation” (Graham, 1992, p. 3). Graham (1988) has put fairy tales into jazz chant form, giving younger and less proficient students the opportunity to work with longer texts. Jazz chants are a form of music that teach intonation, and published versions come complete with suggestions for a variety of ways to implement the chants in a classroom.

Actions can accompany songs, chants, and poems. It is easy to make up simple hand, arm, or body movements. To the poem “Here Is the Beehive,” one first-grade teacher made up a series of hand motions: (to the first line: close fingers into a fist; second line, hold up fist; third line, open it up one finger at a time; fourth line, wave fingers in the air) (Linse, 2006). Every poem or song can be enacted, including ones that students write themselves.

Listening to Understand: The Task Approach

Students are often asked to demonstrate comprehension by performing tasks such as writing the proper response or selecting the proper answer. To be successful, they must listen carefully. Typical classroom tasks include listening to an audiotape and completing true/false exercises based on the content, listening to a prerecorded speech and circling vocabulary items on a list, and listening to a lecture and completing an outline of the notes. Students may be asked to listen for the main idea, for specific information, for synonyms, or for vocabulary in context. Teachers in content classes in which English learners are mainstreamed especially need to attend to the listening skills of these students to make sure they understand the content.

To enhance listening for understanding, students listen to stories and information, responding appropriately using both verbal and nonverbal responses: they listen for implied meaning and for main ideas, details, and sequences, applying knowledge of vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, discourse markers, organization, and tone to further their understanding.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Listening for Understanding

Daniela Panferov’s eighth-grade ELD class invited the artist Yi Kai to their class to talk about his art training in mainland China and the group to which he belongs, Global Harmony Through Arts. Mrs. Panferov and students discuss the topic of the upcoming talk and brainstorm questions and comments the students might like to ask or make. During the talk, students listen for answers to their questions. The talk is tape-recorded and the tape subsequently put into a listening center. Students are able to relisten, making note of ideas they may have missed. (Sholley, 2006)

Listening for Communication

One emphasis at the early advanced and advanced levels is listening for communication: developing students’ abilities to communicate fluently and accurately by integrating listening, speaking, and pronunciation practice, as well as developing skills in anticipating questions, understanding suggestions, and note taking. In the communicative approach, once listeners are beyond the initial stage, interviews are often used to augment listening skills. Listening can also be used in problem-solving situations by means of riddles, logic puzzles, and brainteasers as well as more traditional mathematical problems. Listening, far from being a mere receptive skill, can be successfully combined with other language modes as part of an integrated approach to English acquisition. Table 6.1 provides sample listening comprehension activities within each ELD level.

TABLE 6.1 Activities for Listening Comprehension by ELD Level

Level	Example Listening Activity
Beginning	Hearing sound patterns: Rhyming poems Songs Couplets Comprehending narratives Read-aloud stories Small-group sharing-time anecdotes
Early Intermediate	Hearing sound patterns: Tongue twisters Jingles Jazz chants Alliterative poems and books Listening to sentences: Dialogues Skits Open-ended sentences Conversation starters Playing games: Twenty questions Pictionary Password
Intermediate	Listening to answer factual questions orally or in writing: Dialogues Talks Arguments Listening to discourse: Books on tape Classroom dramatics, plays Instructional conversations
Early Advanced	Listening to make notes: Class lectures Taped content readings Movies and computer files Cooperative problem-solving activities: Group work Logic puzzles Brainteasers
Advanced	Listening to make notes: Guest lecturers Whole-class presentations Cooperative problem-solving activities: Riddles Logic puzzles Brainteasers

Source: Adapted from Díaz-Rico, 2018.

Many formats can be adapted as formats for interactive listening and speaking activities. Simulations can immerse students in creative role-playing. Guessing games, group puzzles, brainstorming, and problems in which students in groups must rank-order items according to their own criteria or preferences necessitate collaboration. Opinion polls, surveys, and interviews with members of the community extend the listening activities outside of class. “Chain” storytelling requires students in groups to retell a story in sequence, with a prize to the group that can tell the longest tale. Panel discussions provide a way for students to listen to what others have to say, and then frame their contribution accordingly. The ideal activity is one in which students must listen to others as the basis for their speaking.

The Listening Process

Before Listening Explicit instruction in listening can be organized as “before,” “during,” and “after listening” in a similar fashion as in reading instruction (see Chapter 7). Prelisting tasks can include a preview of vocabulary, a brief chat to assess schemata and prior knowledge, a cue to the type of text organization expected (such as chronological order), or attention to a map that cues a spatial setting for the listening task. For example, to introduce a listening task in Unit 4 of the Starter Level of *Open Mind* (Bowen, Maruniak, & Zemach, 2014, p. 141), students are reminded what a *coach* does (teaches or trains an athlete or a team) before listening to a recorded conversation between a coach and a sports team. Another word that might be pre-viewed is *sore*.

During Listening Students can follow an outline as they listen or take notes cued by a set of questions or by using idea maps, outlines, paragraphs, or lists. They can listen several times, with slightly different purposes: for detection of transition words, key content terms, the main idea, supporting details, or the attitude of the speaker.

If the teacher feels the need to lecture, a helpful strategy for English learners is to have the lesson videotaped while students simply listen to the lecture, concentrating on understanding and writing down only questions or parts of the lecture they do not understand. Later, the videotape is played and the teacher and several students take notes on the board. The teacher can model the type of outline that indicates the main ideas and supporting details. After a few minutes, the videotape is stopped and the discussion then highlights various note-taking strategies and provides new strategies. This activity can be used on a periodic basis to enhance students’ ability to comprehend lectures and take effective notes (Adamson, 1993).

After Listening Many kinds of activities can follow up a listening task. Students can write, discuss, read, draw, or act out their interpretation of the content. They can attend to the linguistic aspects of what they have heard by completing worksheets on word meaning, idiomatic usage, formal versus informal English, words that compare/contrast, or words that introduce causal statements. The focus can be on cultural aspects of the reading, content applications across the disciplines, or critical thinking, including problem solving.

The postlistening time offers the most authentic activities—most conversation takes place after listeners have shared a talk, movie, or similar event. The postlistening phase can host critical conversation on the main ideas and a genuine sharing of opinions. This is one of the pleasures of real conversation (Miller, 2004).



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Listening to a Recording

Mr. Geller's American history class is going to listen to a recording of Franklin D. Roosevelt's radio fireside chats. Here is what he will say:

- Before listening: "Today we are going to listen to President Roosevelt address the nation. What do you think he might talk about? Why does a president talk directly to the people?"
- During listening: "While you listen to the program, try to listen for the main idea. Also, try to listen for the emotional tone."
- After listening: "Let's group into threes. In your group, complete these two tasks. *Summarize the talk. Describe the emotional tone.*"



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Listening to a Podcast to Investigate a Murder

As the popularity of podcasts grows, teachers are finding fresh ways to harness them to classroom learning. The Common Core State Standards have emphasized nonfiction genres; podcasts can be used to build critical thinking skills while adhering to state standards. The podcast "Serial," from the creators of National Public Radio's *This American Life*, in its first season tried to solve a 1999 high school murder case. Educators across the country incorporated this into instructional units based on the investigative mystery.

Source: Mammina, 2017

Listening to Music in the ELD Classroom Both simple and complex songs in English are available on YouTube and via other search engines. Like other forms of listening, songs can be used aurally only, or can be accompanied by printed lyrics. Songs that are chorally enacted are fun for the group—class members of all ages can attend high school glee club performances or watch videos to view how enaction (hand gestures, etc.) help to convey the meaning and joy of a song. And why not start your own "ELD Glee Club?"

Authentic Tasks in Class and Out in the Real World An effective listening curriculum exposes students to a variety of speakers, for a variety of tasks, on a variety of topics, for a variety of purposes. The test of real listening skill is going out into the real world. Students can be encouraged to interview classmates and community members; attend movies, plays, and concerts; participate in hobby groups; or work in community service.

In these situations, listeners must draw on a relatively sophisticated understanding of the world: what to expect from the speaker, the setting in time and place, the topic, the genre of the text, and the context, or accompanying clues to meaning. Together these aspects create a kind of listening that surpasses the learning available from classroom activities and opens the world to the English learner.

Despite the complexity of listening tasks and the emphasis on communicative approaches, however, listening is only half the work—one must also learn to speak.

Speaking, Communication Skills, and the ELD Standards

Speaking involves a number of complex skills and strategies. In spoken discourse, words must not only be strung together in proper grammatical sequence, but they must also make sense in form, meaning, purpose, and function. Part of the role of the teacher is to help students assimilate and produce discourse not only for the purpose of basic interpersonal communication (informal) but also for the comprehension and production of cognitive academic language (formal). In addition, the teacher provides opportunities for students to express themselves in the wide range of language functions.

The emphasis on communicative methodology mandates that teachers try to get English learners to talk. In K–12 classrooms in U.S. schools, large numbers of English learners are mainstreamed into contexts that render them silent. Language learners develop best when they have opportunities to interact. It is therefore vital that teachers help students develop their speaking abilities.

Speaking in the ELD Standards

Many states have adopted ELD standards as guidelines for school districts with English learners. Most of these standards include provisions for oracy and literacy performance. For example, the Texas English Language Proficiency Standards (Paragraph 74.4(a)(4)) include the following wording: “Effective instruction in second language acquisition involves giving ELLs [English-language learners] opportunities to listen, speak, read, and write at their current levels of English development while gradually increasing the linguistic complexity of the English they read and hear, and are expected to speak and write” (Texas Education Agency, 2017).

Many states with oral proficiency standards for English learners also have regular assessment of students’ progress. For speaking, the emphasis at the early intermediate level might be a test of the ability to ask and answer questions and make simple statements, to retell stories, or to participate in classroom oral language events; consistent use of correct grammar and intonation is not usually expected. At the intermediate level, the expectation is for English learners to use English sounds and grammar more consistently and expand vocabulary as they continue to ask and answer questions, retell stories, and participate in conversations. At early advanced and advanced levels, students are expected to produce academic language, with more precise vocabulary, details, and concepts across a range of tasks. Clearly these goals require extensive oral practice.

Developing Oral Language

Morgan (1992) offers a host of ways that teachers can develop oral language in the classroom. An encouraging classroom climate helps students to feel confident, to be able to speak freely and make mistakes, and to believe that their way of speaking is respected and their opinions taken seriously. A noncompetitive atmosphere encourages sharing ideas through interaction, especially at a dedicated sharing time every day. A “productively talkative” work environment is not so noisy that a timid child feels overwhelmed. However, even in a “normally noisy” class, a shy student may need a “home corner” where he or she can listen to tapes in the primary language or engage in nonverbal play in which English is not necessary. This allows rest from the stress of foreign-language immersion.

Fluency is the most important speaking skill. Jones (2007) defined *fluency* as follows:

Fluency doesn't mean speaking really fast without hesitating. It's being able to express yourself despite gaps in your knowledge, despite the mistakes you're making, despite not knowing all the vocabulary you might need. . . . The opposite of fluency is being tongue-tied and embarrassed when speaking English—or not speaking at all. Fluency means speaking slowly and clearly, not speaking fast and unclearly. Fluency depends on knowing more vocabulary and on confidence—and on not worrying about losing face by making mistakes. Another component of fluency is being able to articulate easily and comprehensively. (p. 18)

BEST PRACTICE Strategies to Develop Students' Speaking Skills

- Academic opportunities for talking and working together range from low structure (work-related chitchat) to highly structured (for example, each person in a cooperative group is responsible for one section of an oral report).
- Listening to students with enthusiasm and interest communicates that their thoughts are valued.
- A pocket chart with slots for every student can be filled with a paper flower after they have spoken at sharing time, with no student receiving a second turn until everyone has had a chance to volunteer a personal anecdote.
- Make sure a quiet area is available where a child can “escape” English for a while.

Situations for Speaking Students need opportunities to talk in natural interactional contexts and for a variety of purposes: to establish and maintain social relationships; to express reactions; to give and seek information; to solve problems, discuss ideas, or teach and learn a skill; to entertain or play with language; or to display achievement. In addition, students need to learn to interact with a variety of conversational partners: students, the teacher, other adults at school, cross-age peers, guests, and so on.

Speaking reinforces listening comprehension. To ensure comprehension, the teacher for content or specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE) needs to solicit feedback from students about the course content. To find out who is comprehending the material, the teacher must ask. If no one asks questions, the teacher finds other ways to check for understanding. Cooperative speaking activities are a part of every SDAIE lesson. Some instructors stop for a pair/share break every so often, so each student can ask a partner one question.

BEST PRACTICE Sustaining a Conversation by Asking Open-Ended Questions

Asking open-ended questions helps to involve others in a conversation. Open-ended questions (those not answerable by yes or no or one-word responses) encourage the other person in a conversation to give more information—for example, “Do you like living in this area?”

Source: Adapted from Matthews, 1994, pp. 34–36

If structured public speaking is important in the content of the class, students are given content expectations and timetable for each presentation. The teacher might invite students to meet outside of class before the presentation to rehearse. Other students can help by participating in a peer-scoring rubric in which content is emphasized over understandability.

It is wise not to surprise students with requests for extemporaneous talk because few individuals shine at extemporaneous speaking. Speaking activities that include a planning phase often draw forth from students a more complex response. This helps students by “stretching their interlanguage” (Folse, 2006, p. 49) in that they can take the time to find the language that expresses their ideas more fully. Having students write down their ideas—with a minimum length for the preparatory notes—can improve the number of participants in a discussion and help discussants to speak more clearly, with more elaborate sentences.

BEST PRACTICE Show and Tell

Beginning English speakers can learn to improve the familiar oral format “Show and Tell” by using standard expressions that fit into a familiar format.

Topic: *This is . . .* a postcard of the Golden Gate Bridge.

Personal slant: *We went to San Francisco . . .*

Description of object:

(present) The bridge **is** almost two miles long . . .

(past) It **was** completed in 1937.

Closing: *So, it was my favorite part of the trip.*

Source: Adapted from LeBeau & Harrington, 2003, p. 76



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Creating Conversation-Friendly Environments

The kindergarten teacher transformed her room into a rain forest by putting artificial trees in the center, arranging several live plants and a small inflatable plastic pool underneath them, putting more live plants in the water-filled pool, hanging photographs of the rain forest throughout the room, placing area rugs near the display, and posting a question in large letters: “Why are rain forests important?” Whole-group instruction occurred early in the morning, before lunch, and at the end of the school day. At other times, students worked in small groups on the area rugs.

A high school teacher, for a Civil War unit, involved students in a letter-writing project imagining they were soldiers writing home during the war, and grouped the desks into clusters, each one representing a regiment of soldiers or a home community.

Source: Adapted from Zacarian, 2005

Resources for Spoken Discourse Opportunities for oral discourse range from carefully constructed activities to those that are completely student generated. Several kinds of speaking activities can be included in daily lessons, including problem solving in small groups, practicing persuasive or entertaining speeches, role-playing, interviews, chain

stories, talks, problems, and discussions. *Discussion Starters* (Folse, 1996) offers speaking activities that build oral fluency using exercises specifically designed for group participation. The discussion prompts are based on role-play, “finish-the-story” situations, problems that can be solved only if members of a group work together, and real court cases for groups to play “judge.”

One discussion topic featured in LeBeau and Harrington (2003) is “Designing a Menu for the International Students’ Welcoming Party.” What could be served at a multinational, multicultural party that welcomes students from thirty different countries to the Newcomer High School? What menu can include food to satisfy everyone? What criteria can be used to choose dishes? Is cost a factor? Are there some foods that some people cannot eat? What foods would be unusual or interesting for people to try? To enrich the discussion, can conversants describe food from their culture that they might like to share with others?

BEST PRACTICE Practicing Fluency by Making a Recording

1. Working individually or with a partner, students plan a three-minute presentation (perhaps explaining a grade-level-appropriate proverb—use a search engine to locate websites for “Proverbs for ESL”).
2. Using mobile phone recording or audio-recording computer software such as Audacity (<http://audacity.sourceforge.net>), students make a recording (working from notes, but *not* reading from a script).
3. Students listen to themselves, checking for a smooth, natural, conversational tone, and for adequate volume and clarity.
4. Students record again, and submit a peer or self-evaluation to the teacher, comparing versions 1 and 2.

Source: Adapted from Matthews, 1994, p. 78

Teaching Pronunciation English learners need proficiency in the English sound system. Pronunciation involves the correct articulation of the individual sounds of English as well as the proper stress and pitch within syllables, words, and phrases. Longer stretches of speech require correct intonation patterns. Accurate pronunciation, including phoneme production, stress, pitch, and prosody, is one of the most difficult features of learning a second language. Native speakers acquire the phonology of their native language by listening to and producing speech. The same is true to some degree in a second language, but by using audiolingual methods (see Chapter 3) there is a role for such phonemic drills as minimum pair work (*bit/pit, hill/hail, dog/dock*). Beyond word-level pronunciation, students can practice sentence-level intonation.

However, the goal of teaching English pronunciation is not necessarily to make second-language speakers sound like native speakers of English. Some English learners do not wish to have a nativelike pronunciation but prefer to retain an accent that indicates their first-language roots and allows them to be identified with their ethnic community. Still others may wish to integrate actively into the mainstream culture and therefore are motivated to try to attain a native accent in English. Teachers need to recognize these individual goals and enable learners to achieve pronunciation that does not detract from their ability to communicate.

BEST PRACTICE Pronunciation Self-Correction

The teacher can encourage pronunciation self-correction in the following ways:

- Writing overheard utterances on the board (without identifying the student) for the class as a whole to practice
- Using a wall chart with typically mispronounced items (for example, the pronunciation of *-ed* and *-s* endings, *r/l* errors, basic word stress rules, and sentence intonations)
- Offering students pronunciation software that has a recording feature so students can receive feedback.

Source: Goodwin, Brinton, & Celce-Murcia, 1994

Students' attempts to reproduce correct word stress, sentence rhythm, and intonation may improve by exposure both to native-speaker models and other dialects. The teacher's role, in this case, is to create a nonthreatening environment that stimulates and interests students enough that they participate actively in producing speech. Teachers may also take a more direct role in improving pronunciation. Clarification checks can be interjected politely when communication is impaired. Teacher correction or sentence completion can be given after the teacher has allowed ample wait-time. Older students might be given the task of comparing speech sounds in their native language with sounds in English to better understand a contrastive difference. Even though pronunciation practice is essential, teachers should not stigmatize English learners or require them to repeat phrases aloud in front of other students. Pronunciation practice should be private.

BEST PRACTICE A Game for Stress and Sentence Intonation

In the game of Stress Clapping, a student comes to the front of the room, pulls a sentence written on a folded paper strip out of a box, and displays the sentence on the whiteboard (sentences are taken from song lyrics, poems, or limericks). The student must read the sentence aloud and clap each time there is a stressed word. The student's team receives a point for each stressed word correctly identified.

Source: Mahoney, 1999b

Teachers can help students practice intonation by leading choral reading, one clause at a time, repeated once. This differs from a regular read-aloud session because the explicit purpose here is to practice prosody. Learners may benefit from looking at a chart representing a normal sentence curve. As a declarative sentence is read aloud, the teacher—or a lead student—traces the progression of the intonation pattern across the curve. A question would require a different demonstration curve. This helps English learners listen for and replicate the desired prosody. Table 6.2 offers activities to teach intonation in English.

TABLE 6.2 Activities to Teach Intonation in English

Name of Activity	Description	Language-Acquisition Level
Consonant Memory	One student completes a sentence with a target consonant sound. The next student repeats the sentence and adds another word containing the same sound. ("I went on vacation and packed a dog [doll, dish].")	Beginning, Early Intermediate
Plural Practice Bragging	Students make up closets full of clothes, refrigerators full of food, or garages full of vehicles. ("I have twelve cars and ten bicycles.")	Beginning, Early Intermediate
Three Verb Tag	Prepare lists of three past-tense verbs at a time, one of which has a different ending sound (<i>baked, cleaned, cooked</i> —answer is <i>cleaned</i>). See how many "odd" verbs each student can "tag."	Beginning to Intermediate
Yes/No Interview	Students formulate questions to ask one another that are answered by brief affirmative or negative sentences. ("Do you like school?" "Yes, I like it a lot.")	Early Intermediate, Intermediate
Tongue Twister	Students make up their own tongue twisters using words from the dictionary with the target consonant in the initial position.	Early Intermediate to Advanced
Found a Dog	Students write fake ads about finding a dog that contain two or three sentences. Each student gets a turn reading aloud his or her dog description.	Early Intermediate to Advanced
Contraction Interview	Students interview each other for five facts. When they present these facts about their partner aloud to the class, they must use three contractions. ("He's on a soccer team.")	Early Intermediate to Advanced

BEST PRACTICE Focus on Blends

Between the end of one word and the beginning of the next word, there are three kinds of blends.

1. Consonant plus vowel: *box office*
2. Consonant plus same consonant: *music class*
3. Consonant plus different consonant: *hit music*

Students can practice these blends using the following list.

rock star	devoted d fans	talent t show	mosh p it
acoustic c guitar	hard r ock	rock c oncert	hit s ong
blues s music	mic s tand	pink C adillac	golden o ldie

Teachers who overemphasize exact pronunciation when learners are in the early stages of learning English may hinder the innovative spirit of risk-taking that is preferable when a learner is trying to achieve fluency. Teaching intonation through fun activities such as chants and songs brings enjoyment to language learning. On the other hand, at higher levels of proficiency it is essential to provide the learner with corrective feedback.

If an older learner has serious accent issues—to the point of unintelligibility—computer software such as that available from Auralog (www.auralog.com) can provide individualized tutoring. Such pronunciation software is excellent for the specific, repetitious drills needed to develop a more native-sounding accent. Many such programs allow the user to record speech and then compare the recording with a norm; some even show a graphic representation of the speech tone for purposes of comparison. Students can work in privacy at a listening center or in a computer laboratory.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Computer-Assisted English Pronunciation Practice

To practice pronunciation for his ELD class, Abdul uses software that enables him to click on a word or sentence to hear it repeatedly, look up a meaning, see a related picture or videoclip, or read a related text. He can also listen to a sentence, compare his voice with a computer model of the correct response, and have the computer judge the accuracy of his attempts.

Learners of English can look for phonological cues in word structure only when the pronunciation is regular. For example, knowing the pronunciation for *bad* will help with *had*, *Dad*, *pad*, and *fad*, but not with *wad*. Still, many phonics-based reading approaches carefully control the learner's exposure to vocabulary, focusing on words that are phonetically regular during the learner's early reading phase. This can lead to some contrived text, such as Learning Pyramid's *Miss Nell Fell in the Well* (Whitman, 1994). One solution would be to balance the use of controlled readers with read-aloud texts that expose the learner to a broader range of phonemes during listening comprehension.

To ensure that adequate attention is paid to developing pronunciation skills, two principles to keep in mind when evaluating ELD programs are the following: First, does the program offer the teacher an ample set of tools to explain, practice, and review pronunciation in a structured way? Second, does the program balance texts based on strict sound–symbol correspondence with texts that expose the reader or listener to a naturally occurring set of phonemes, a set that mirrors the distribution of phonemes in everyday speech?

The Speaking Process

Strategic speaking involves a combination of cognitive, social, and emotional factors. Table 6.3 offers a compendium of strategies to enhance English learners' oral presentations.

Before Speaking Prespeaking activities warm the students to the topic and activate or provide some prior knowledge. In one activity, English learners draw a hardware-store paint “chip” from a bag and pick one of the color descriptors to use in a quick travel story using the frame “I went to _____ and saw a _____” (using the paint chip “Malibu blue,” “I went to Malibu and saw a surfer in a blue bathing suit.” Prespeaking may include a consultation with the teacher about the meaning of the words. In another activity, the teacher might bring travel brochures to class and have students circle new words to warm up to the task of interviewing a partner to talk about a dream vacation. These activities help students practice vocabulary and survey the content terrain before speaking.

TABLE 6.3 Some Strategies Useful for English Learners in Speaking

Phase of the Speaking Process	Sample Strategies for English Learners
Before speaking	<p>Lower anxiety by taking a few deep breaths, visualizing success, repeating positive self-talk phrases.</p> <p>Review the purpose of the talk; ask for clarification if unsure of goal.</p> <p>Activate background knowledge; make associations with similar situations.</p> <p>Predict what will happen and what language is needed; practice difficult vocabulary in advance.</p> <p>Plan the talk, using an outline, rehearsing with a partner if it is a joint presentation.</p>
While speaking	<p>Ask for clarification or help if necessary.</p> <p>Concentrate on the task, avoiding distractions.</p> <p>Stay involved with others; negotiate meaning with listeners.</p> <p>Monitor speech, paying attention to vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation; try new words; back up and fix mistakes if necessary.</p> <p>Compensate for vocabulary shortcomings by using cognates, synonyms, gestures, or guesses; simplify message if necessary; base talk on information about which speaker has some prior knowledge.</p>
After speaking	<p>Self-reward with positive affirmations.</p> <p>Evaluate accomplishment, reviewing goals and strategies, asking for feedback and tuning in to the reactions of others.</p> <p>Identify problem areas, looking up grammar and vocabulary that were troublesome.</p> <p>Make a plan for improvement, noting strategies of classmates or instructor's suggestions.</p> <p>Ask for help or correction from more proficient speakers.</p> <p>Keep a learning log, writing down reflections, strategies, reactions, and outcomes.</p>

Source: Adapted from Alcaya, Lybeck, Mougel, & Weaver, 1995.

Students can prepare for an impromptu speech on the subject of a news story by watching the evening news on television, listening to a news radio station, reading a newspaper or newsmagazine such as *Time* or *Newsweek*, or talking to people outside of class about selected issues. Students who must prepare for a formal public presentation need a more structured approach, with an attention-getting opener, a preview of what will be said, a substantive main body of the speech, a summary of the main points, and a memorable conclusion. An outline helps the student keep the presentation on topic. Rehearsal in advance of delivery—whether aloud to oneself, onto an audio- or videotape, or before a critical audience—helps students pace the delivery, create a natural tone, and practice difficult pronunciation (Wong, 1998).

While Speaking Teachers working in mixed-ability classrooms can plan group activities that help students in different ways. Students can work in homogeneous groups when the goal of the activity is accuracy and in heterogeneous groups when the goal is fluency.

BEST PRACTICE Story Retelling at Four ELD Levels

First-grade students at the beginning ELD level can listen to a reading of “The Three Little Pigs” and recite the wolf’s “I’ll blow your house down!” along with the reader. A group of early intermediate students can retell the story using pictures and then talk about the pictures. Intermediate students can retell the story to the teacher or a cross-age tutor who can write their story for them, and then students can reread, illustrate, and rearrange the story from sentence strips. Early advanced English learners can create a new ending for the story.

Informal class discussions are a low-key way to practice speaking. While speaking, a student makes eye contact with listeners and adjusts the volume to an appropriate distance between the speakers. A speaker usually does not use notes when chatting with a classmate, but sometimes such notes are available from a previous brainstorming session. Turns are usually shared in small groups, and one person does not monopolize discussion.

Students making a public speech or academic presentation require a more formal approach, with a neat public appearance that shows respect for the situation and audience. Visual aids in the form of charts or overhead projections help listeners to see as well as hear the presentation. Memorizing the presentation is not advisable, for it may lead to a stiff and forced delivery. Stance should be facing the audience, with hands and feet appearing calm and under control (Wong, 1998).

Correction while a person is speaking is seldom appropriate. If the teacher makes such corrections, the speaker may become tense and less fluent or creative. If the speaker is genuinely unable to be understood, the teacher can be honest about it. However, it impedes communication if the teacher expects an imperfect sentence to be repeated correctly. Reformulation (sometimes called *recasting*) is the best alternative; if the teacher hears an incorrect utterance, a similar sentence can be repeated to the student naturally and in the context of the conversation without embarrassing the student.

Oral presentations can be assessed using *holistic scoring*, with a three-level score (good/excellent/superior) based on content (clear purpose, vivid and relevant supporting details), organization (well-structured introduction, body, and conclusion), and delivery (skillful verbal and nonverbal language, with clear, appropriate, and fluent speech). Alternatively, *analytic scoring* gives point values to each aspect of content, organization, and delivery, and the speaker receives as a grade the sum of the points for each aspect (see Chaney & Burk, 1998, for examples of each type of scoring).

After Speaking Many kinds of activities can follow up a speaking task. As in the listening task, students can write, discuss, read, draw, or act out their interpretation of the content, attending to the linguistic or cultural aspects of what they have heard. For the most part, oral discussion is a vital part of any other task and should be developed as a top priority. When students have been outside the classroom on a service-learning project, debriefing is needed so that students can reflect on and share with one another what they have learned.

English learners can use drama as an extension activity in a reading lesson.



Iklat Photography/Pearson Education, Inc.

BEST PRACTICE Assessing a Presentation

Use the following categories to assess a student's oral presentation (+ = good, ✓ = satisfactory, – = needs more practice):

- **Content.** Fulfilled assignment; developed topic adequately, within time limit; appropriate topic for level of audience
- **Delivery.** Maintained eye contact with listeners; spoke naturally, loudly, and clearly; appropriate posture, movements, and gestures; used notes effectively
- **Fluency.** Clear pronunciation; accurate use of vocabulary and grammar, without too much repetition or hesitation
- **Organization.** Effective introduction, logic, coherence, and conclusion

Source: Adapted from Matthews, 1994, p. 209

TABLE 6.4 Three Activities for Listening and Speaking

Name of Activity	ELD Level	Directions for the Teacher
Shadow Tableaux	Beginning	Pass around a bag and have each student put in a small personal object. Spread these out on an overhead projector so only their shadow can be seen. Have students work in pairs to name all the objects. (Mahoney, 1999)
Give Me a Word That . . .	Early Intermediate	Students form three groups (A, B, C). Prepare index cards (one for each student) with vocabulary questions starting with the phrase, “Give me . . .” For example, “Give me a word that dances . . .” (<i>ballerina, Usher</i>) A word that runs (<i>runner, river</i>) A blue word (<i>sky</i>) A cold word (<i>ice, winter</i>) Student from group A reads a word; group B has 30 seconds to give an answer; if not, group C can answer. Whichever is correct wins that round. (Mansour, 1999)
Headline News	Intermediate	Cut out interesting headlines and their corresponding photographs from newspapers. Cut the headlines in half (do not split word phrases). Paste the beginnings and endings of the headlines onto index cards. Students in group A receive photographs, group B, headline beginnings, and group C, headline endings. Students move around the room, asking one another (not showing) the content of their card. The first set to identify its three parts wins the game. (Hetherton, 1999)

Speaking Games and Tasks Table 6.4 describes three kinds of tasks by ELD level that enhance listening and speaking. The game-style format reduces speaking anxiety.

Using Music to Teach Oral Language Group singing is fun for most classes and seems to be a way to make oral language production both memorable and relatively painless. Learning lyrics to music helps to teach intonation and pronunciation. Songs can be taught to a whole group, or the whole group can be divided into parts as alternating choruses. Singing is more fun if students can sing along with a recording—and most students prefer the video version. Modern choral technique incorporates gestures and body movement, which can be adapted for all ages.

Oral Discourse and the Instructional Conversation Contemporary educators have sought discussion formats that engage students in critical thinking and intellectually productive social interaction. In the instructional conversation (IC), the instructor functions as “thinker-leader” while encouraging voluntary oral participation. The IC model developed by Goldenberg and Gallimore (1991) has both instructional and conversational elements. The most important instructional element is the thematic focus. Themes are drawn from the text that participants read in common before beginning the conversation. A good theme is one that

is flexible and grows out of the ideas of the participants, without being superimposed by the leader. This flexibility creates shared responsibility for the discussion by the participants.

The conversation elements include aspects that defuse anxiety and promote interaction. It is helpful, for example, to talk while seated in a circle of chairs, which facilitates eye contact and allows individuals equal access to turns. Disagreement and difference of opinion are protected; part of the challenging atmosphere is for students to find a way to evaluate one another's viewpoints. In the IC format, turns are voluntary—no one is called on to speak. Grammar is not corrected. Group members talk with one another in everyday English on topics that elicit opinions without necessarily requiring expertise or prior knowledge.

To support the conversational elements of the IC, the thinker-leader asks open-ended questions, responds positively to student ideas, and weaves ideas that are volunteered by class members into the instructional content. A tone of challenging, nonthreatening, intellectual give-and-take promotes critical thinking and speaking. As one student speaks, others listen. Teachers might offer lunch-hour discussions with interested students on a voluntary basis on selected topics of interest to students.

Oracy and Web 2.0 Web 2.0 is a term for media tools that help the user to share information and collaborate using the Internet. English learners join Internet-based communities, participate in social networking sites, share audio podcasts and videos, and use wikis and blogs in audio formats to enhance their oral skills. Computer-mediated communication (CMC) tools enable students to speak with one another directly over Skype and other Voice-over-Internet-Protocol (VoIP) technologies using oral chatrooms and other forms of synchronous (immediate connection) and asynchronous (delayed or audio-recorded formats) modes. These tools have the potential to augment students' desire to practice speaking and listening in their second language.

Media Literacy Includes Media Oracy Critical media analysis is an excellent way to stimulate English learners' listening and speaking skills. Being able to sort out information and critically research, analyze, and understand media are becoming more and more important. *Media literacy* has been used as an umbrella term for the analysis of Internet information, computers, art, graphics, images, text, advertising, and so forth. From a critical perspective, students can respond to questions such as "What media do you watch? Is there a 'best' way to get your information? Do advertising techniques have an impact on you or someone you know? How accurate is the content? What biases can be spotted?" (see www.medialit.org). Moreover, English learners are just as responsive as the rest of us viewers to media-based chitchat: "So, how did you like that movie?"



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Connecting Oracy to the Community

Each student in Nora Bryce's ELD class created a short presentation about some aspect of his or her native culture. They practiced giving the presentations to one another during class. As "cultural ambassadors," various students went with Nora in pairs to a local breakfast Kiwanis meeting once a month before school. The Kiwanis members became so interested in the students' presentations that they devoted their fundraising activity to awarding college scholarships to class members. In this way, community connections enhanced the students' cultural capital and vice versa.

Speaking and listening are ends in themselves and do not always have to be linked to reading and writing. But such links, both planned and unplanned, demonstrate that language is a whole, and proficiency in one skill mutually reinforces others.



In summary, current approaches to oracy instruction vary in emphasis, but the best teaching supports the following principles: (1) Oracy begins with BICS but should also include the development of oral academic language; (2) listening activities are important across a range of skill levels and academic tasks; (3) ELD standards should be included in all listening and speaking lesson plans; (4) the design of the classroom should support ways in which English learners can converse for both social and instructional purposes; (5) both listening and speaking instruction follow a process of preparation, teaching and practice, and follow-up; (6) new forms of Internet-based media are available to enhance oral skills; and (7) oracy activities can connect to, and serve, the community at large.



English-Language Literacy Development

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter, you should be able to . . .

- Advocate the empowerment of English learners by such practices as integrating oracy and literacy, teaching reading first in the primary language, and employing English language-development (ELD) standards that facilitate students' transfer to mainstream classroom;
- Identify reading instructional practices for English learners that develop reading fluency and comprehension as well as critical literacy response and analysis skills across a spectrum of genres and modalities;
- Explain how writing both in English and in the native language can create bilingual writers who are able to express their ideas and opinions fluidly with a high level of grammatical accuracy, and how a process approach to writing can help learners to overcome frequently occurring ELD hurdles;
- Clarify the role of grammar in bilingual literacy, and ways that implicit awareness of grammar can be combined with explicit grammar teaching and error correction to advance the writing skills of English learners;
- Contrast content-based ELD with other models of English instruction, looking at ways with which content instructors and ELD teachers can collaborate in lesson planning and delivery; and
- Describe how multimodal ways of reading and writing combine with the possibilities of digital tools to expand existing notions of literacy.

Meeting the Varied Literacy Needs of English Learners

Literacy instruction is a crucial aspect of K–12 schooling in the United States. The topic of how best to instruct English learners has been a part of the debates over the best ways to help students learn to read and read to learn (see Wolfe & Poynor, 2001, for a discussion of the politics of reading instruction). However, a complicating factor in the acquisition of literacy is the varying background experiences that English learners bring to the reading task. English learners may have backgrounds that place them in the following categories:

- K–3 learners whose beginning literacy instruction is in their primary language
- K–3 learners acquiring initial literacy in English because they do not have access to primary-language reading instruction
- Older learners with grade-level primary-language literacy who are beginning to develop literacy in English
- Older learners with limited formal schooling in their home country
- Older learners with inconsistent school history and limited development of either the primary language or English

This complex terrain, with English learners coming from a wide range of backgrounds and primary language literacy and achieving a wide range of scores on English proficiency tests before and during instruction, suggests it is unlikely that a one-size-fits-all approach to reading instruction is suitable. Instead—especially as contemporary ideas about literacy expand in the Cyber Age—instructional models must become ever more complicated and differentiated to respond to the literacy skills that will be necessary as the twenty-first century advances.

Connections among Oracy, Literacy, and Social Functions

How do speaking and listening connect to reading and writing? Vygotsky (1981) believed that children learn to engage in higher-level thinking by learning first how to communicate. The more students can use language (both their first and second languages) in the classroom environment, the more they will learn. The language that students bring from home is the foundation not only for the language used at school but also for the process of learning itself. Thus, both English proficiency and learning in the content areas are furthered by a solid base of primary-language proficiency; and current ideas about translanguage encourage dual-language use in instruction.

Writing and reading, like speech, are social acts. This means that the natural sociability of children in their first language is the foundation for their intellectual development. This chapter presents ways in which literacy and oracy develop within a social context and are enhanced by strategic teaching of language functions. Students need opportunities to engage with English in natural interactional contexts and for a variety of purposes: to establish and maintain social relationships; to express reactions; to give and seek information; to solve problems, discuss ideas, or teach and learn a skill; to entertain or play with language; or to display achievement—as they continue to develop literacy skills in their primary language.

While teaching, observant educators take note of what activities “light a fire” in learners and take care to balance students’ receptive and productive skills within a learning environment that respects culture, human interests, and imagination.

English for Empowerment

Teachers of English must become aware that language is inextricably joined with cultural identity and social differences, and the individual’s relationship to institutions and sociocultural contexts affects opportunities for oracy and literacy. Not just any activity in class simply and directly enhances language development. Direct connections to the community and to the circulation of power strengthen the chance that an individual’s oracy and literacy efforts will actually enhance his or her social and cultural prospects in life.

Banks (1991) set empowerment in the context of personal and social change:

A curriculum designed to empower students must be transformative in nature and help to develop the knowledge, skills, and values needed to become social critics who can make reflective decisions and implement their decisions in effective personal, social, political, and economic action. (p. 131)

However, Wink (2000) cautioned that the verb *empower* should not be used with a direct object, because it is patronizing to believe that one can empower someone else.

Take the contrasting examples of two parent newsletters sent home by a school. The first newsletter is part of the school’s open house packet distributed with about six other papers, some of which are in Spanish. The newsletter is a word-for-word primary-language translation of the reverse side, a letter to English-speaking parents. There are no illustrations—merely a page consisting of ten paragraphs, each explaining a different homework tip. This newsletter assumes that the parents welcome the advice of the school authorities and that the parents’ role is to help the students complete the assignments sent home by the teachers.

In contrast, another teacher works with students to write *Homework Help* manuals, six-page “little books” composed by students themselves in cooperative groups. Each group decides on a title for their book and brainstorms the book’s content. Will it be in both Spanish and English? Will it include recommendations of a special place to study at home? Will it mention adequate lighting? Will it discuss how to deal with the distractions of television or of siblings? Will it advise students how to solicit help from parents? Each group adds the ideas that the members choose. When the books are ready, the teacher asks each student to take the book home, discuss it with the family, and then come back to class with feedback about whether the suggestions are apt, plus additional ideas.

Looking at these two products, which would benefit students more? Which is more likely to be a focal point for discussion at home? One must admit that the student product is more likely to influence attitudes and behavior toward studying than the administrator’s version, no matter the difference in expertise. Moreover, what social functions of language were involved in the student project (interpersonal, representational, heuristic)? In the process of creating the manual, the students naturally used speaking and listening together with reading and writing. This is an example of a transformative literacy that served both institutional purposes and student empowerment.

Teachers with an advocacy agenda speak of “social justice literacies” (Boyd, 2017), going beyond an inclusive curriculum that includes a wide range of reading materials written by authors of diverse ethnicities, social classes, geographic areas, and sexual orientations. This is akin to what Banks (2010) has called a “heroes and holidays” approach, wherein a superficial

celebration of difference is used to signify diversity. Instead, social justice educators realize that a critical approach is necessary, engaging students in discussions along with diverse authors of topics of oppression, privilege, and power, using inclusive language practices to allow students to grapple with the world as they experience it. In this way, literacy becomes an avenue for truth.

An Integrated Approach to Oracy and Literacy

The idea that speaking and listening must precede literacy is outdated. Oral-language proficiency promotes literacy and vice versa. Most people are visual learners—memory of a new word, for example, is enhanced when the word can be seen as well as heard. So an integrated approach to English language arts is recommended, not only at the elementary level but also for content-area instruction at the secondary level. Speaking and listening should be combined with reading and writing, and content instructors should integrate the teaching of English with subject matter instruction.

To integrate oracy with literacy, English learners need environments that help them to meet the social, emotional, cognitive, and linguistic demands of learning. Students need a positive *emotional setting*, a climate of trust and respect. Teachers can encourage students to respect the language of their peers and can model respectful listening when students speak. Students need a flexible *physical setting* for interaction: round or rectangular tables, clusters of desks, workstations, and centers. In addition, classrooms need to contain *things to talk about*: nature displays, flags, maps, artifacts, a variety of print material, and a challenging, interesting curriculum. Finally, students need *frequent opportunities to interact*: flexible grouping that allows work with a variety of classmates, cross-age tutors, the teacher, aides, volunteers, other adults at school, and guests.

Speaking can be integrated with literacy and oracy activities in many ways. Students can listen to the sharing-time stories of others and use these as starting points for their own “adventures.” Inviting community elders to tell stories in class provides rich stimuli, and when the visitors are gone, the students can finish these stories to continue the entertainment or write other stories in response. Older students can write response comments to their peers’ oral presentations, share notes from class lectures with a group, or create group research reports. Negotiating, co-creating, responding, and giving presentations help to integrate speaking, listening, reading, and writing.

Reading First in the Primary Language

Study after study has demonstrated that the degree of children’s native-language proficiency is a strong predictor of their progress in ELD. Hurrying young children into reading in English without adequate preparation in their own language is counterproductive. If at all possible, children should be taught how to read in their native language while acquiring oral proficiency in English and subsequently taught to extend their skills to reading in English.

Personal Factors Affecting Literacy Development in English Similar factors influence literacy in English as those that affect second-language acquisition (SLA) in general (see Chapter 3). An understanding of these factors can help teachers support students’ process of learning to read in English.

Primary-Language Literacy Level The more advanced the native-language competency, the more rapid the progress made in English, providing the student is motivated and the social context is supportive. Each year of schooling adds sophistication. In the early grades, a child

with concepts about print in the first language (L1) has an advantage, including the ideas that print carries a message; that books are organized with a cover, title, and author and are held in a certain way for reading; that reading flows in a particular and consistent direction (whether left to right and top to bottom or some other way); that (most—especially alphabetic) printed language consists of letters, words, sentences, punctuation marks, and case markers—upper- and lowercase, title case, etc.). Successful beginning readers build on their emergent literacy that starts before formal schooling.

In later grades, students who have learned in their primary language how discourse works have an advantage. For example, they can scan text for key ideas or specific details, they can read picture captions to interpret visual information, and they can use text aids such as the table of contents or a glossary. In addition to concepts about print and basic literacy skills, students bring a wealth of reading strategies. Most important, however, is *metastategic* knowledge—being able to choose the right strategy for the task from a repertoire of strategies. In addition, students with oracy skills can use their listening and speaking productively in understanding task directions, asking clarifying questions, or displaying knowledge in response to the teacher's questions.

For the most part, primary-language literacy means that the student is familiar with the culture of schooling, including the need to sit still and focus, to follow classroom procedures, and to use pragmatic skills such as manners to act as a productive member of the class. Having the intellectual self-discipline instilled by schooling accompanied by literacy skills in the primary language bodes well for success in English literacy.

Transfer of Primary-Language Literacy Language transfer occurs when the comprehension or production of a second language is influenced by the way the L1 has been acquired. Sometimes learners use rules from their L1 that are not applicable to the second language (*negative transfer*). As an illustration, some negative phonetic transfers that Spanish speakers make when writing in English include *es* for /s/ as in **estop*, *d* for /t/ or /th/ as in **broder*, *ch* for /sh/ as in **chort*, *j* for /h/ as in **jelper*, and *g* for /w/ as in **sogen* (sewing).

What are positive transfers from the L1? The capacity to focus on syllables and words is a foundational reading skill, which helps students read, and in turn is advanced as they read. Moreover, *phonemic awareness*—the ability to separate phonemes; to add, delete, or substitute phonemes in words; and to blend or split syllables—is a metalinguistic ability that transfers from L1.

Students can also transfer sensorimotor skills (eye-hand coordination, fine muscle control, spatial and directional skills, visual perception and memory); auditory skills (auditory perception, memory, discrimination, and sequencing); common features of writing systems (alphabets or syllables, punctuation rules); comprehension strategies (finding the main idea, inferring, predicting); study skills (taking notes, using reference sources); habits and attitudes (self-esteem, task persistence, focus) (Hamayan, Genesee, & Cloud, 2013); the structure of language (speech–print relationships, concepts such as syllable, word, sentence, paragraph); and knowledge about the reading process.

Aside from the preceding skills, students can transfer direct linguistic content. Of course, names for concrete objects in the first language must be relearned, but a few cognates can transfer from Spanish to English (cognates are words in two languages that look alike and have the same or similar meaning). Recognizing a similar word with a similar meaning makes learning new vocabulary easier. Even more important than concrete nouns and cognates are abstract concepts that can transfer. Students have to learn such concepts as proofreading or photosynthesis only once; they can then transfer that knowledge into the second language. The more concepts that are stored in the L1, the more enabled the student during ELD.

In addition to language labels, phonological awareness, and discourse skills, students can transfer *metalinguistic awareness*—the ability to use language to think and talk about the language itself. Metalinguistic awareness may develop during middle childhood as the child learns to think about the linguistic system. Another view is that metalinguistic awareness is a result of schooling, particularly of learning to read. Metalinguistic ability is a function of age—to a point—and students vary in this ability. To summarize best practice in promoting metalinguistic awareness, knowledge, and skills, Table 7.1 divides these into four components and prescribes practices that enhance these components.

Teachers can transform language transfer into a learning strategy by helping students become aware of ways in which they can draw from prior knowledge of how language works to make English easier. Explicit attention to transfer, both in teacher attitude (welcoming dual-language use, understanding code-switching, providing support for literacy in multiple languages, and honoring primary languages) and in specific strategies, will help students build SLA on a firm foundation of L1 proficiency.

Level of English-Language Proficiency English learners enter U.S. schools from diverse backgrounds. Some are balanced bilinguals, literate in two languages; others are limited bilinguals, with oracy and literacy skills more developed in one language than the

TABLE 7.1 Practices That Promote Metalinguistic Awareness

Component of Metalinguistic Awareness	Definition	Suggestions to the Teacher to Enhance Awareness
Metaphonological	Identifying the phonological components in linguistic units and intentionally manipulating them	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Teach sound–symbol connection (phonics). ■ Teach word segmentation into syllables and onset-rime awareness (the idea that rhymes occur when the ending phonemes are the same sounds, even when beginning phonemes vary).
Metasyntactic	The ability to reason consciously about the syntactic aspects of language and to exercise intentional control over the application of grammatical rules	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Have students make good/bad judgments on the correct form of sentences.
Metapragmatic	Concern with the awareness or knowledge one has about the relationships that obtain between the linguistic system and the context in which the language is embedded	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Help students judge the adequacy of messages and their context. ■ Point out ironic, sarcastic, humorous, and polite forms of language.
Metasemantic	Refers both to the ability to recognize the language system as a conventional and arbitrary code and the ability to manipulate words or more extensive signifying elements, without the signified correspondents being automatically affected by this	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Teach students about word denotation and connotation. ■ Expand vocabulary of synonyms and antonyms. ■ Help students find cognates between languages.

Source: Gombert, 1992, pp. 15, 39, 63; Pratt & Nesdale, 1984, p. 105.

TABLE 7.2 Expectations for Listening and Reading Comprehension at Five ELD Levels

ELD Level	Listening Comprehension	Reading Comprehension
Beginning	Responds to simple directions and questions using physical actions	Responds orally to stories read aloud by answering factual comprehension questions using one- or two-word responses
Early Intermediate	Asks/answers questions and makes statements using phrases or simple sentences	Responds to stories read aloud by answering factual comprehension questions using phrases or simple sentences
Intermediate	Asks/answers instructional questions using simple sentences	Uses simple sentences to respond to stories by answering factual comprehension questions in the language experience approach (LEA) and guided reading
Early Advanced	Comprehends detailed information with minimal contextual clues on unfamiliar topics	Restates facts and details from content area texts
Advanced	Identifies orally and in writing key details and concepts from information/stories on unfamiliar topics	Locates and uses text features such as title, table of contents, chapter headings, diagrams, and index

other. Others are monolingual and literate only in their native language; still others are monolingual yet preliterate. This creates a complex situation for instructors and requires differentiated instruction. Careful assessment is needed so that the teacher is aware of the various skill levels (speaking/listening, reading, writing) of each student, and flexible grouping is required to advance each student differentially in his or her strong and weak skills.

A student's assessed proficiency score, combined with other measures of proficiency such as teacher observation and reading assessment, determines the appropriate level of instruction for that student. Table 7.2 displays ELD objectives for listening and reading comprehension at five SLA levels. The complexity of the standards increases gradually as expectations increase for language proficiency.

A student's proficiency level is often represented as three scores: listening/speaking, reading, and writing. Because of individual differences, students will have mixed skill proficiency levels; one person may be at the early advanced level in speaking/listening, the intermediate level in reading, and early intermediate level in writing. Each proficiency requires distinct ELD objectives.

It would be relatively easy to plan instruction if students at a grade level were homogeneous in English ability, but that is seldom the case. More frequently, English learners with four or five levels of proficiency are mixed in the same class. Therefore, planning must accommodate twenty to thirty students across a range of levels, with many students at mixed levels. How is this possible?

The answer is differentiated instruction that develops students at two SLA levels at a time. If a lesson is geared to accomplish writing objectives at the early intermediate and early advanced levels, the beginning-level students may listen while the early intermediate students read aloud what they have written; intermediate and advanced writers may act as peer tutors. In this way, students can participate in lessons although their particular SLA objectives are not addressed on that day.

ELD and ELA Standards in Reading

In many states, the ELD standards correspond to the English Language Arts (ELA) standards in reading. The same categories are used so that as English learners progress, their skills are developed in the categories that will be used for evaluation in the mainstream class. These categories may include Reading Word Analysis, Reading Fluency and Systematic Vocabulary Development, and Reading Literary Response and Analysis. Although the subskills that make up these categories become progressively more challenging from Beginner to Advanced, even at the beginning level students are exposed to literature and asked to respond (“Listens to a story and responds orally or in drawings”).

The chief difficulty in teaching reading to English learners is that for native-English speakers, reading is a matter of recognizing on paper the meaning that already exists in oral language. Those who do not understand English, however, must first learn the language before decoding its written form.

The difficulty, then, is that when working with English learners, teachers have to teach English simultaneously with teaching how to read English. Most teachers of reading are aware that students do not understand everything they read—even native-English speakers need to acquire vocabulary as well as the thinking skills (comprehension, inference) that accompany literacy. English learners need to learn thousands more words just to reach the starting point of the linguistic knowledge that native speakers learned before starting school. This catch-up must take place at school. ELD reading and English language arts (ELA) reading fundamentally differ in that there is a double burden on the English learner. Therefore, the ELD standards precede the mainstream ELA standards.

Foundations of Literacy

Purposes for Reading

During the advent of the era of television, critics asked, “Is reading dead?” With the advent and proliferation of the Internet, people are asking the same question as they see young people inundated with images and sounds that flout classic print conventions. At the same time, however, more individuals are expected to be literate than ever before, as employment in modern technology requires advanced reading and writing skills.

However, in the midst of calls for enhanced literacy to benefit the workplace, one might remember that this functionalist approach ignores the need for critical literacy, which Corley (2003) defines as “the practice of helping learners make sense of what they are learning by grounding it in the context of their daily lives and reflecting on their individual experiences, with an eye toward social action” (p. 1). McLaren (1995) called for media studies to be a central focus of school curricula so that learners can be educated beyond a functional literacy that serves the purpose of the school but perhaps not the purpose of the individual.

The search for reading strategies that fit the generic learner quickly runs afoul not only of current calls for situated literacy but also of the impossibility of finding a “best” method. Certainly, contextual and instructional variation complicates matters: Older learners need different reading instruction than do children, learners’ prior schooling creates diverse starting points for instruction, and learners’ goals deviate from official policy mandates. In spite of these shortcomings, it is clear that instruction in reading can be applied situationally and experimentally until some wisdom is reached about best practices for the particular context and learners.

Most people learn new skills in an integrated way, starting from the need to learn for some purpose. Most learners read and write because they see others doing it—reading directions, newspapers, or road signs for information, or reading comics or novels, just to pass the time. However, many English learners do not see their families reading or writing. Therefore, it takes a leap of imagination for them to see themselves as readers. It is important, then, that the classroom as a community become a place in which reading is enjoyable. A context of shared enjoyment is the key to making literacy an everyday part of life.

Reading is a complicated process, requiring the reader to coordinate letters and sounds; spelling patterns; word meaning; combining words to form phrases, sentences, and paragraphs; and drawing on prior knowledge to understand how the text fits the context. A reading program must not ignore any of these facets. Does phonics work? Yes—but it cannot be the only component of good reading instruction. Phonics instruction in the absence of purpose and meaning, in other words, interesting things to read and hear and talk about—will not help children learn to read well.

Standards-Based Reading Instruction

Basal readers on the market reflect the current emphasis on standards-based instruction. For example, *Launch into Reading, Level I* (Heinle & Heinle, 2002), an ELD reader, refers to the specific California English Language Arts Standard to which each lesson is connected. Lesson 13, “Flowers (A Poem by E. Greenfield)” addresses Reading Standard 6, 3.4, “Define how tone or meaning is conveyed in poetry.” Follow-up exercises ask students to use a continuum scale to rank “five ways you can learn about people’s feelings and ideas” (short story, poem, magazine or newspaper article, movie or TV program, and conversation), which addresses Reading Standard 2, 2.7, “Interpret information from diagrams and charts.”

Later in the lesson, students are asked to find the rhyming words in the poem “Flowers” (Reading Standard 1, 1.6, “Create and state a series of rhyming words”) and then work with a partner to interpret a poem (Writing Standard 6, 2.4, “Write responses to literature: Organize the interpretation around several clear ideas, premises or images”). All teaching materials, including the teacher’s resource book, the student workbook, and the student reading book, contain explicit references to standards on each page.

Transfer of Reading Skills

Students who are already literate in their L1 have many useful reading skills that transfer directly into the second language. These include the ability to decode a word by sight, to sound out more difficult words, to use context clues, to read text in a certain direction, to skim or scan as necessary to find information, to use cues such as the title and pictures to help create meaning, to identify the main idea when reading, to use story-sequence skills, to predict or anticipate story outcomes, to read critically, to understand characters and plot events, to distinguish between fact and opinion, and to connect causes with effects (Cloud et al., 2000). These who do not read in their L1 have to be taught reading skills explicitly.

Developing Word Analysis Skills

What characterizes literacy instruction for English learners? The natural developmental processes that children undergo in learning their L1 (oral and written) also occur in SLA (oral and written). For reading, these processes include using knowledge of *sound-symbol relationships*

(graphophonics), *word order and grammar* (syntax), and *meaning* (semantics) to predict and confirm meaning, as well as using background knowledge about the text's topic and structure along with linguistic knowledge and reading strategies to make an interpretation (Peregoy & Boyle, 2016). The following sections specifically detail the major tenets of current reading pedagogy and practice.

Emergent Literacy A key insight of emergent literacy theory is that children learning to read already understand quite a bit about print. Most young children have had much exposure to print in the culture at large and may have engaged in various informal kinds of reading. Even homes without books often have magazines and the ubiquitous advertising on television, which includes product names. Therefore, it is the teacher's job to build on these nascent skills so students can "grow into reading."

Emergent literacy involves a combination of components. Emergent readers must learn the following skills:

- Drawing on their prior knowledge of the world to connect the printed word with its semiotic meaning (for example, the red octagonal sign at a street corner means "stop")
- Enhancing their phonemic awareness by linking sounds with symbols
- Recognizing a set of sight words that are not phonetically predictable (*the* is not "ta-ha-ay")
- Acquiring reading behaviors, such as handling books and focusing on text
- Participating in a culture of reading for enjoyment and sharing their pleasure in reading with others, borrowing and returning books to the class library, and working in the company of others to acquire meaning from books

Concepts about Print Students need a foundation of basic ideas about print. They may already intuit some of these, or they may need schooling to gain these concepts. This knowledge involves practice with print:

- Where to begin writing or reading, going from left to right.
- Where to go after the end of the line (return sweep).
- The print, not the picture, carries the message.
- Word-by-word pointing (one-to-one correspondence).
- Concept of a letter, word, sentence.
- Concept of first and last part (of the word, sentence, story).
- Letter order in words is important.
- There are first and last letters in words.
- Upper- and lowercase letters have purpose.
- Different punctuation marks have meaning.

Other authors have called this *skill with print*, which includes the preceding concepts listed with a few additional insights (Gunning, 2005):

- Language is divided into words.
- Words can be written down.
- Space separates written words.
- Sentences begin with capital letters and end with punctuation.
- A book is read from front to back.
- Reading goes left to right and top to bottom.
- Words, not pictures, are read.
- A book has a title, an author, and sometimes an illustrator.

For learners who first language is nonalphabetic, or whose language does not use upper-case letters, or in whose language books are read from what English readers would consider back to front, some of the knowledge about skill with print in L1 must be retaught during the acquisition of literacy in English.

BEST PRACTICE Fostering Emergent Literacy in Children

- Provide an accessible, appealing literacy environment with attractive reading and writing materials.
- Classroom reading materials should include extra copies of books read aloud by the teacher or books by the same author, commercial books, student-written books, comic or cartoon books (with words), magazines, encyclopedias, and bilingual, age-appropriate dictionaries.
- Encourage children to role-play or playact reading and writing activities.
- Incorporate shared book experiences using Big Books or enlarged text.
- Follow-up shared reading with independent reading, small-group review of the Big Book, or work with language skills such as phonics.
- Bolster reading with chanting or singing based on reading the lyrics together.

Source: Adapted from Gunning, 2005

Phonemic and Morphemic Awareness The ability to hear and manipulate sounds in words is called *phonemic awareness*. The basic insight is that spoken language consists of identifiable units—utterances are composed of spoken words, which in turn consist of syllables, which in turn have distinct sound units (Chard, Pikulski, & Templeton, n.d.). Phonemic awareness is an auditory skill and does not involve words in print. The following are phonemic awareness exercises:

- Blending: What word am I trying to say? Ppppppiiiiin.
- Segmentation (first sound isolation): What is the first sound in *pin*?
- Segmentation (last sound isolation): What is the last sound in *pin*?
- Segmentation (complete): What are all the sounds you hear in *pin*?

BEST PRACTICE Activities to Help Learners Develop Phonemic Awareness

- *Wordplay* (What is left if I take away the *b* in *bright*? *right*)
- *Rhyming games* (One, two, buckle your shoe)
- *Nursery rhymes* (Jack and Jill went up the hill)
- *Picture books with rhymes*

Morphemic awareness is the understanding that the smallest elements of meaning contained in words play a role in word recognition. Readers advance in skill when they can combine their knowledge of spelling and meaning patterns with sound–symbol correspondence. Both of these concepts are taught explicitly in direct approaches to reading.

Vocabulary and Concept Development The prior knowledge most useful for reading is largely word knowledge (vocabulary). This is the chief hurdle faced by English learners because reading a word successfully depends on knowing the meaning of the word in the first place. Once students start to read, vocabulary acquisition accelerates because general comprehension of a text allows readers to predict and infer meaning of unknown words they encounter. The teacher's job is to help students develop background knowledge through the use of other books, oral discussion, exposure to media, or pictures or other visual prompts, combined with text, in order to build schemata—that is, construct a framework of concepts that shows the relationships of old and new learning and how they are connected.

Decoding Incomplete or inaccurate decoding limits comprehension—decoding is essential to reading. Students with phonemic awareness can use this skill in phonics instruction as they come to understand that there is an orderly relationship between written letters and speech sounds. Attempting to read an unfamiliar word is a process of trying to connect the letter with its sound and then to affirm the meaning from the context.

Using *sight words* (those that do not conform to phonetic rules—about 10 percent of English written words), the learner relies on visual memory to match sound with writing. Using *phonics*, the learner explicitly constructs the sound–symbol connection. Each of these techniques has its place in learning basic words. Lists of sight words can be obtained from reading texts. These include frequently used words with nonpredictable spelling, such as *the*, *might*, *could*, and so forth. Phonics can be taught using the synthetic method (bottom up), with students learning phonemes in isolation, then learning to blend them, and finally seeing them in the context of words. Or students can learn using the analytic method, beginning first with contrasting words that contain the target phonemes and then having students generate similar words. The analytic method is illustrated in Box 7.1.

BOX 7.1**Teaching Reading via the Analytic Method of Phonics**

1. *Planning.* Make a list of easy words that includes the target phonic element, for example the digraph /sh/: *cash*, *crash*, *mash*, *dish*, *fish*, and so forth. Write simple, meaningful sentences for each one, or a little story, if possible, that contains the words. Find pages in a common reading book that has these or other *sh*- words, including /sh/ as a final sound.
2. *Teaching.* Read the sentences aloud to the students in a smooth and informal fashion. Have the students echo-read the sentences—repeating after the teacher, then repeating each underlined target word after the teacher, looking to see what sound the words have in common.
3. *Guided practice.* Students each produce the target sound and look again at the letters that make the sound. Have students say other words with the same sound. Students choral-read the sentences and then take turns reading them aloud.

Source: Adapted from May & Rizzardi, 2002, p. 177.

Books designed for phonics instruction as much as possible use words with a regular sound–symbol correspondence. This does not always lend itself to engaging prose. Because English as a language has changed in sound–symbol correspondence in the 550 years since the printing press was first used, its basic, everyday prose often features the most irregular, least phonics-amenable words: in English, sometimes the more interesting the text, the less phonics-friendly the words!

The International Literacy Association finds that phonics is an important part of a beginning reading program but states explicitly that phonics instruction needs to be embedded in a total reading/language arts program (International Reading Association, 1997). Today, teachers introduce phonics through mini-lessons and gamelike activities such as making words and word sorts rather than by having students mark letters and words on worksheets.

Unfortunately, commercial phonics products such as “decodable” books are designed to provide structured reading practice, but the content is often contrived and the sentences sound unnatural. As Herrera, Pérez, and Escamilla (2010) pointed out, the story lines can be less than compelling: “Three bees got in a cab. Three bees wish to see Cat. Three bees will give Cat a gift” (from Lee, 2001, p. 61). (Nothing here to motivate reading!)

On the other hand, Mole’s adventure in *The Wind in the Willows* (Grahame, 1983) begins, “The Mole has been working very hard all morning long, spring-cleaning his little home—first with brooms, then with a pail of whitewash, till he had dust in his throat and spots on his black fur” (p. 4). (I don’t know about you, but I have a lot of questions already. How does one clean a mole’s tunnel with brooms? How did Mole get the whitewash? Did Mole have spots already?) Nothing sparks the imagination like real literature, even if it is not strictly “phonical”!

From Letter to Word Recognition Written English is based on the alphabetic principle, and children need to understand that sounds correspond to letters. Prereading activities help to develop visual discrimination, including such tasks as matching pictures and patterns, sequencing story cards in a meaningful order, and matching uppercase letters to lowercase letters. Teaching letters phonetically takes place in a sequence. First, alphabet cards introduce the name of each consonant letter and the sound it makes. Matching objects and pictures to letters helps learners to identify initial sounds. Ending sounds can be treated in a similar way. Then short vowels are introduced, usually in the order *a*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and *e*; this is followed by the short vowels blended with consonants. Simple stories featuring short vowels help students find early success with reading. Long vowels and vowel blends are taught next, followed by digraphs (consonants that together make a single sound, like /th/).

However, reading based on phonetic awareness alone may not be the best approach for English learners. Hamayan (1994) cites four reasons why structural approaches (phonics based and grammar based) are not sufficient to meet the needs of preliterate English learners: (1) They do not meet the learner’s need to acquire an understanding of the functional aspects of literacy; (2) literacy is forced to emerge in an unnatural way and in an artificial form; (3) a focus on form without a functional context makes learning abstract, meaningless, and difficult; and (4) literacy becomes a boring chore.

Teachers of English learners are encouraged to provide students with rich language experiences, including wordplay, which lead them to understanding sound–symbol correspondences. During and after read-alouds, for example, teachers point out specific sound and letter patterns that occurred in the texts. According to Peregoy and Boyle (2016), specific instruction in sound–symbol correspondence emerges best through students’ own writing, including the individualized phonics practice provided by the use of invented or temporary spelling; this can be an important pathway on the way to conventional spelling, that assists both reading and writing development.

Developing Reading Fluency

The ability to decode rapidly, accurately, and efficiently is known as fluency—“freedom from word-identification problems that might hinder comprehension in silent reading or the expression of ideas in oral reading” (Harris & Hodges, 1995, p. 85). Because human beings have limited

attention capacity, decoding words needs to become so automatic that it can be accomplished with minimal active attention. Automaticity is important, because if a reader has to devote sizable attention to decoding, insufficient attention will be available for that constructive, critical reading comprehension. Chard and colleagues (n.d.) put it this way: “Although fluent decoding is not sufficient for high levels of reading comprehension, it is definitely a prerequisite for comprehension” (n.p.).

Through careful attention to print in sequential decoding, readers begin to notice that patterns of letters, such as *-ing* and *-ike*, occur in many words. Helping them focus on these patterns and recognize these repeated patterns in words can help readers to process or “chunk” the letters as a single unit. When readers are able to do this, they are able to more rapidly identify and process words during reading, increasing fluency.

One would like to believe that extensive use of context cues makes reading more fluent, as the reader does not have to pause to define an unfamiliar word. However, even if a reader correctly identifies a word using context, there is no guarantee the word will be recognized the next time it is encountered in print. Without the letter-sound connection, the contextual advantage is lost. If a reader can decode a word using other skills, context can provide a useful “check” or confirmation of the word—but only after the word has been tentatively decoded.

Reading Aloud A learner’s specific approach to decoding can be analyzed by listening to him or her read aloud. When attempting a sentence with an unknown word, various readers use distinct strategies. One type of reader uses *semantic knowledge*. If the sentence reads, “Joey pushed open the door of the haunted . . .,” a reader might guess that the next word is not *hose*, because the meaning would not make sense. Another type of reader might use *syntactic knowledge* in the sentence “Joey drives a small . . .” to reject the word *care* as the wrong choice for that part of the sentence. Still a third type of reader might use *orthographic shape* in the sentence “Joey drove a load of trees to the paper mill,” knowing that the words *pap* and *paperwork* look wrong. A single reader might use these three types of meaning-making equally often, or the teacher might detect a preference for one type of decoding. Interventions would be designed accordingly.

Seeking Meaning The need to understand is natural to the mind. The goal of the reading instructor is for students to come away from a reading passage with meaning. Because the reader constructs this meaning, there will always be some imperfect match between the meaning as intended and the meaning as attained by each reader. The richest of text evokes the most fundamentally meaningful, yet passionate and idiosyncratic response. Anything less is reductionistic—students should not be doomed to accept the exact understandings of others rather than to glory in their own, however unique. This is the chief reason for the existence of literature.

Systematic Vocabulary Development Throughout one’s schooling, acquiring vocabulary is a constant. One important research question that remains unresolved concerns whether adequate vocabulary in a second language can be acquired through reading, or is more likely to result from some kind of direct instruction. What is the minimal number of recognition vocabulary words needed to facilitate reading comprehension? One study suggests that 3,000 words (in word families) are needed (Laufer, 1989). Part of the problem with acquiring vocabulary is that word learning takes place in increments; although a single encounter with a word may provide some learning, even 100 encounters may not spark in an English learner the native speaker’s complex knowledge of the word and the way it is used in the culture. The real problem is achieving adequate, in-depth exposure to content-related vocabulary.

New vocabulary words can be introduced before a reading lesson, or meaning can be inferred from context during reading. Explicit work with new vocabulary words, though, is usually reserved for the after-reading phase. Students can study words by means of the *word element approach*, isolating roots, prefixes, and suffixes and using word families to expand a new word into its host of relations (e.g., the words *biology*, *sociology*, and *psychology* are relatives of *anthropology*). Or students can practice *specific vocabulary-acquisition strategies*, such as inferring from context (finding synonyms in apposition, making use of a subsequent list of examples of a new word, or using a dictionary).

BEST PRACTICE**Identifying Vocabulary Meaning Using Different Forms of Apposition**

Educators often assume that a reader can find the definition of an unfamiliar vocabulary word within the surrounding context. Finding the meaning of a word in context is easy when apposition is used—using a second word or phrase immediately after a word to supply or supplement its meaning. Apposition can be taught directly by emphasizing the following cues:

- Look for a comma. An example is “. . . there was vast rebellion against the despot, a dictator who ruled without legality.”
- Watch for parentheses. An example is “. . . the details of the accident were lurid (too shocking and sensational) for children to read.”
- Check for a dash. An example is “We enjoyed the monorail—the elevated train—that took us around the whole park.”
- Beware the use of “or” to express an apposition; it can be misleading: “I took a jitney, or small bus.” (Does this mean I took **either** a jitney **or** a small bus?)

Students can practice *acquiring technical words* by using a glossary, sidebar, chart, or graphs. Worksheets or other kinds of practice can help students recognize meaning. Students can practice *word formation* through compounding (*room + mate = roommate*), blending (*motor hotel = motel*), and making acronyms (*self-contained underwater breathing apparatus = scuba*). However, moving a new word from students’ acquisition vocabulary (used in reading or listening) to their production vocabulary (used in writing or speaking) requires far more guided practice.

In terms of how many and what type of words a person needs to learn, Richards (2008) described vocabulary learning as “involving acquisition of a core vocabulary that is common to different domains, genres, and text types. In addition, learners build up a more specialized vocabulary related to their own needs and fields of interest, whether these be academic, occupational, or social” (p. 12).

As students transition from the structured vocabulary that characterizes the beginning and intermediate states of English acquisition in school, they need strategies to deal with new words that they encounter independently. Strategies are useful such as guided discovery (directing learners to guess word meanings correctly), contextual guesswork (helping students to use cues such as parts of speech to infer the function of a word in a sentence), and dictionary use (to look up not only definitions but also pronunciation, grammar, style, and register).

Students can find suggestions and restrictions on which words can go with which in a helpful resource such as the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary*. Online collocation tools like the Compleat Lexical Tutor (www.lextutor.ca) can help students learn which words and expressions in English are used most often (frequency), in which situations certain words are used

(context), which words are found together (collocation), and how words are used grammatically and strategically. Online tutorials for Compleat Lexical Tutor are available for learning to use this computerized language database to teach vocabulary.

Additionally, McCarten (2007) recommended presenting vocabulary to students in multiple modalities, including pictures, sounds, stories, conversations, webpages, and so on, with topics relevant to students' interests; vocabulary learning should be personal and enjoyable. Learners need to hear, see, and say new words again and again, while being encouraged to notice, use, and reuse new words in their everyday life. Along with basic word usage, academic vocabulary is learned strategically, as an important part of the content objectives in every discipline.

BEST PRACTICE Pre-teaching Essential Vocabulary

Vocabulary acquisition is an important part of the content objectives in an instructional plan. Here are a few ways to share key terms:

- In pairs, students examine new words, looking for primary-language cognates, component morphemes, and associated terms.
- A picture glossary keeps key terms fresh through the lesson.
- In pairs, students create graphic organizers for each term, including meanings (denotations), analysis of word subparts (morphemes), or word associations (connotations).

Source: Adapted from Quiocho & Ulanoff, 2009, pp. 12, 116

Contextual Redefinition Learning to use context to increase comprehension while reading is an important skill of proficient readers. Contextual redefinition shows students the importance of context in gaining meaning. This is a useful learning strategy for beginning, below-grade-level, and above-grade-level readers because the context can be used to define terms they may not know and encourage them to use prior knowledge to find meaning even when there are no dictionaries readily available.

The teacher can select a few essential words students will encounter in the text, present these in isolation, and then have students offer suggestions about their meaning. The teacher can then provide a context for each of the words, with clues of definition. Students offer suggestions about the meanings and work in groups to consult dictionaries. This activity builds reading, writing, comprehension, listening, and speaking skills; encourages a natural and holistic view of language learning; and provides multiple opportunities for English learners to use and hear language in a variety of settings.

Reading Processes

Before Reading “Into” activities activate students’ prior knowledge by drawing from their past experiences or help students develop background knowledge through new experiences. Films, texts, field trips, visual aids, and graphic organizers can clarify meaning and help students anticipate the work. Brainstorming ideas about a topic is one way to activate prior knowledge. Some teachers have students make predictions about the content of a story. Students can discuss what happened later in the book to confirm or disprove their original predictions. See Box 7.2 for a summary of strategies to use Into, Through, and Beyond.

Background knowledge can be activated or developed through classroom activities that include all of the language processes. Two such activities are brainstorming and K-W-L (What do I **K**now? What do I **W**onder about? What have I **L**earned?). Asking, “What do I know?” allows students to place new knowledge in the context of their own episodic memories and existing concepts. If prior knowledge is scant, the teacher knows that schemata—mental frames that guide meaning—must be built.

During brainstorming and K-W-L, all ideas should be accepted. Once ideas are exhausted, the students and teacher together can organize the list, grouping and selecting appropriate category labels to create a beginning model from which they can work and learn.

K-W-L not only taps into what students already know but also draws from their interest and curiosity. After listing everything they know about a topic, students then tell the teacher what they would like to learn. The chart is kept up throughout the duration of the unit, and students refer to it from time to time. When the unit is completed, they return to the chart and talk about what they have learned. By starting each topic or unit with an activity that actively engages students in reviewing their own experiences relevant to the topic, the teacher gains valuable insights.

During Reading “Through” activities help students as they work with the text. Reading aloud is a useful strategy that gives the students an opportunity to hear a proficient reader, to get a sense of the format and story line, and to listen to the teacher “think-aloud” about the reading. In the think-aloud, teachers can model how they monitor a sequence of events, identify foreshadowing and flashbacks, visualize a setting, analyze character and motive, comprehend mood and theme, and recognize irony and symbols.

Teachers may find that English-language literature does not elicit the same responses from English learners as from native-English speakers. By selecting materials judiciously, slowing the pace slightly, portioning work into manageable chunks, and increasing the depth of each lesson, the teacher can ensure that English learners have a fulfilling experience with literature.

Students can perform the actual reading through a variety of methods. Table 7.3 offers some reading methods for in-class use across a variety of grade levels.

To sustain students’ interest in a longer work of literature, class time can be used to review the narrative to date and discuss students’ understanding of the assigned reading. A preview of the next reading can feature interesting aspects of the new passage. In *Literature in the Language Classroom*, Collie and Slater (1988) suggested ways a teacher can structure literature homework:

- *Gap summary.* A technique in which the teacher provides an almost-complete and simply phrased description of the main points of the section assigned for home reading. Gaps are usually key words or expressions that only a reading of the passage can reveal.
- *Character diary.* An ongoing record of what each character is feeling that helps students step within the character.
- *What’s missing.* An exercise encouraging students to make inferences about missing aspects of the story: What were the characters like at school? What were their favorite subjects? Did they have friends? Were they close to their parents?
- *Story mapping.* A way for students to use a graphic organizer to follow the events in the plot. Younger students can chart “What Happens Next.” Older students can explore categories such as Characters, Intent, Opposition, and Resolution.

TABLE 7.3 In-Class Reading Methods for English Learners

Method	Description
Page and paragraph	Teacher or fluent reader reads a page and then English learner reads a paragraph; finally, group discusses what has been read.
Equal portions	Students work in pairs and each reads aloud the same amount of text.
Silent with support	Students read silently in pairs and can ask each other for help with a difficult word or phrase.
Choral reading	Passage is divided into sections, and various parts of the audience read various sections.
Radio reading	One student reads while others close their books and listen. After reading, the reader can question each student about what was read.
Repeated reading	Students read silently a book that has been read aloud, or independently reread books of their choice.
Interactive read-aloud	Students can join in on repetitious parts or take parts of a dialogue.
Echo reading	For rhythmic text, students echo or repeat lines.
Cloze reading	When reading Big Books, teacher covers certain words and students try to guess word in context.
Nonprint media support	Students can follow along with a taped version of the book.

Source: Hadaway, Vardell, & Young, 2002.

After Reading “Beyond” activities are designed to extend the students’ appreciation of literature, usually in another medium.

- Poems can be written and shared with other classes or parents at a Poetry Night.
- Reviews of literature works can be written for the school or classroom newspaper.
- Letters to authors or to pen pals encourage students to express their reactions to certain pieces of literature.
- Students can be movie critics and view the film representation of a text studied in class, comparing the differences and discussing the pros and cons of the two media.
- Favorite parts of selections can be rewritten as a play and enacted for other classes.
- Using reminder sheets, students in pairs can restate to each other various parts of what they have read (cued retelling).
- Students can plan a mock television show—for example, a game show—in which a host asks contestants to answer questions or to act as characters or objects in the story.

To sustain interest in reading, one instructor started an English as a second language (ESL) book club (ESL Meet), with special bookmarks and regular meeting times at which students presented book reviews or recommended books to one another. About six to ten students attended the meetings, with about twenty-five to thirty active club members (Suresh, 2003).

Developing Reading Comprehension

Comprehension is the key to meaning. Readers generally form some initial hypothesis about the content or main idea of a book or a reading passage based on their expectations, previous knowledge of genre, or other clues such as the title or first sentence. Reading further, the reader modifies the initial prediction. Getting the gist of a reading passage is the most important skill

BOX 7.2

Strategies by ELD Level of Student for Use Before, During, and After Reading

Stage of the Reading Process	Students' ELD Level		
	Beginning	Early Intermediate/Intermediate	Early Advanced/Advanced
Before Reading	<i>Visual and kinesthetic prompts:</i> Pictures, art, movies, physical objects relating to the reading selection that students identify and discuss.	<i>Anticipation/reaction guides:</i> A short list of statements to which students agree or disagree.	<i>Selected read-alouds:</i> Passages that pique students' interest in the selection.
During Reading	<i>Read-along tapes:</i> Tapes encourage slower readers, allow absent students to catch up, and provide auditory input for students.	<i>Image/theme development:</i> Charts, graphs, pictures, and symbols can trace the development of images, ideas, and themes.	<i>Visual summaries:</i> Groups of students create chapter reviews, character analyses, or problem-solutions on overhead transparencies.
After Reading	<i>Character review:</i> Specific students become a character and provide background for other students' questions about the reading.	<i>Critic:</i> "Journalists" write reviews of literature works for the school or classroom newspaper or act as movie critics and review the film version of a text studied in class. They can then compare the differences and draw conclusions about the pros and cons of the different media.	<i>Genre switch:</i> Favorite parts of selections can be rewritten as a play and enacted for other classes as a way to encourage other students to read that piece of literature; students can plan a mock television show and devise various formats that include ideas from the literature studied. For example, a game show host can ask contestants to answer questions or to act as characters or objects in the story.

a reader can develop, because getting the main idea makes further reading more purposeful, facilitates recall, and helps to make sense of the supporting details.

Teaching of Reading Matched to Proficiency Levels Teaching reading to English learners implies that reading activities can be matched to the language-proficiency level of the student. Different strategies are useful for various proficiency levels. As shown in the box, these separate beginning from intermediate and advanced levels.

BEST PRACTICE

Reading Strategies for Students at Different Levels of Proficiency

Beginner: Anticipating/predicting, skimming, scanning, extracting specific information, contextual guessing, prereading activities, simple fill-in-the-blanks

Intermediate/Advanced: Comprehension checks, guessing from context, clue searching, making inferences, scrambled stories, extracting specific information, skimming, scanning, paraphrasing, note taking/outlining, passage completion, understanding idioms, learning discourse structures, comprehending linking words.

Strategies When Comprehension Fails Too often, students do not know what to do when they cannot comprehend a text. Table 7.4 presents several strategies that are useful when comprehension fails.

Each of these strategies can be developed using a variety of reading selections. When introducing a new comprehension strategy, the teacher explains when the strategy is useful, models the process, and then gives the students guided practice.

TABLE 7.4 Strategies That Readers Can Use When Comprehension Fails

Strategy	Description
Rereading: Text-based answers	<i>Text-based</i> means one can skim the text and find the answer. (1)
“Right there” answers	Answer is easily found in the book. (2)
“Think and search” answers	Reader needs to put together different parts of the reading to obtain a solution. (2)
Rereading: Reader-based answers	<i>Reader based</i> means the reader must infer the answer: Look for clues from text. (1)
“Author and you” answer	Solution lies in a combination of what is in the story plus the reader’s experience. (2)
“On my own” answers	Answer comes from one’s own experience. (2)
Visual imagery	Before rereading, students discuss what pictures come to mind. Younger children can draw these pictures, and older children can use verbal description. Ask students to form mental images while rereading. (3)
Think-aloud	Students self-monitor comprehension by asking, “Does this make sense?” as they read. What question can they ask that will help them focus on what they need for it to make sense? (1)
Suspending judgment	Read ahead when a new concept is not well explained, seeking information to develop clarity. (1)
Reciprocal teaching	Students predict, summarize, ask questions, and suspend judgment, using these techniques with one another. (4)
Mine, yours, and ours	Students make individual summaries and compare with a partner, then write a joint paragraph outlining their similarities and differences. (5)
Summary pairs	Students read aloud to each other and summarize what they have read. (5)
Shrinking stories	Students write their own versions of a passage in twenty-five words or less. (6)
Simply put	Students rewrite a selection so that students two or three years younger might understand it. (6)

Source: (1) Barr & Johnson, 1997; (2) Raphael, 1986; (3) Gamrel & Bales, 1986; (4) Palinscar & Brown, 1984; (5) Lipton & Hubble, 1997; (6) Suid & Lincoln, 1992.

Text Genres Readers must become familiar with the features, structures, and rhetorical devices of different types of texts, such as narrative, descriptive, and analytic. For example, a government document presents a formal, official point of view, whereas a personal or family story conveys the subject from a different, more intimate perspective. Even samples from the same type of content—storytelling, for example—feature various genres, such as folktales, myths, legends, and autobiographies. Scientific writing includes varied genres—peer-reviewed academic journals, “high-brow” general magazines (e.g., *Nature*), popular magazines (e.g., *Wired*), science fiction, and even comic books. Students need to be taught text processing techniques (how to take notes, how to reread text for answers to study questions, how to read charts and picture captions) and then be able to recall the information they read.

Multicultural literature helps students see life from a variety of points of view, compare cultures on different aspects of life, and view their own culture represented in the curriculum. Anthologies of multicultural literature provide a wealth of materials, some grouped thematically (see Harris, 1997). *Multicultural Voices in Contemporary Literature* (Day, 1994) presents thirty-nine authors and illustrators from twenty different cultures. A follow-up book, *Latina and Latino Voices in Literature for Children and Teenagers* (Day, 1997), has biographies of thirty-eight authors, with synopses of their work, as well as an extensive list of resources for books in English on Latino themes. Day (2003) is a follow-up extending the Latina and Latino themes.

Grade-Level-Appropriate Texts Several sources are available that suggest *age-level-appropriate reading material*. Public libraries have detailed reference books that list thousands of children’s books, including the Caldecott and Newbery Medal books. Sometimes a school will send out a list of recommended books to every family. At one school, fourth graders prepared their own list of books and duplicated it for every child in the school. Generally speaking, children respect the teacher’s recommendations, but if a recommended book is not grade-level appropriate, the young reader may become discouraged.

Students read at grade level for schooling purposes, but they might also read below grade level for entertainment and above grade level with assistance. Many classrooms have “leveled” books so that frustration can be allayed. However, mentoring is essential to help students grow. A school librarian is a useful source of recommendations to students with specific interests. This frees readers from the confines of the exactly leveled book so they can explore books that may be beyond their current level, but contain content that excites them and piques their curiosity.

Critical Thinking An important aspect of schooling in a democracy is the ability to think for oneself—to analyze ideas, separate fact from opinion, support opinions from reading, make inferences, and solve problems. Critical thinking can create self-understanding because a person might approach significant issues in life differently with the acquisition of analytic skills.

Thinking skills are an important part of reading comprehension. Distinguishing fact and opinion, identifying cause and effect, using a text to draw conclusions and make inferences, and evaluating the credibility of text are among the skills incorporated into high-quality reading lessons. The four-volume set *Critical Thinking Handbook* (grades K–3, 4–6, 7–9, and high school) presents lesson plans that have been remodeled to include critical thinking. The Center for Critical Thinking at Sonoma State University provides a wealth of resources for examining and promoting critical thinking.

Creative Thinking and Risk-Taking Creativity is a part of cognition and should not be confined to music and art classes. During problem solving and project-based learning, for example, once the requirements of a problem or project have been surveyed and the goals

determined, creative thinking can be applied to generate possible solutions. Creative thinking can be used in every reading lesson to generate alternatives and to expand the point of view of reading comprehension: What if the main character were female rather than male? What if the book were set in the seventeenth century rather than in the modern era? What if the setting were Thailand rather than the United States? Can we imagine a different outcome?

This focus opens the door to a fertile terrain, the imaginary, a world in which possibilities are unlimited and constraints of reality do not pinch. In addition, use of the imaginary can stimulate scholars to explore other cultures and other times in history, as well as nonhuman worlds, such as in science fiction, myths, or animal tales.

The genre of brain puzzles is also mentally stimulating. Books of such puzzles can be found at major bookstores and are fun to use to keep young brains alert.

Both critical and creative thinking are integral parts of the human mind that enrich any part of the curriculum. Thinking is the key to the creation of meaning, during which children learn to react not just in response to the immediate, real world before them, but also in accord with their internal world, the world of ideas. Channeling the power of thought is an important part of language education in the context of cognitive development.

Language Experience Approach A language development activity that encourages students to respond to events in their own words is the language experience approach (LEA). As a student tells a story or relates an event, the teacher writes it down and reads it back so that students can eventually read the text for themselves. Because the students are providing their own phrases and sentences, they find the text relevant and interesting and generally have little trouble reading it. The importance of LEA in developing the language of English learners cannot be overemphasized.

- By having students express themselves orally, LEA connects them to their own experiences and activities.
- LEA reinforces the notion that sounds can be transcribed into specific symbols and that those symbols can then be used to re-create the ideas expressed.
- LEA provides texts for specific lessons on vocabulary, grammar, writing conventions, structure, and more.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Using LEA After Reading

Sixth-grade teacher Laura Bowen tells how she used LEA to help reinforce key concepts after her students read about the Qin dynasty.

After finishing the lesson on the Qin dynasty, I had my class brainstorm key ideas. I wrote their points on the board and then asked them to tell a story about a fictional family of three living during that era. The only restriction was that they had to keep in mind the key points. Their story follows:

Chang, Li, and their son, Wei, lived during the Qin dynasty. Li was excited because Chang was able to buy the family some land. A few days later, Chang was taken by the emperor to go build the Great Wall. Li and Wei were sad. They did not like the emperor, because he had strict laws and punishments. Chang died on the long walk to the Great Wall. Li and Wei grew crops so they could survive. They hoped a new and better emperor would come and overthrow the mean one.

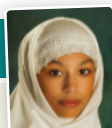
After the class finished their story, they read it aloud many times. This experience helped them to personalize history.

Developing Literary Response and Analysis Skills

Students of literature need to acquire a set of literary response skills to fully appreciate fiction, nonfiction, and other creative work. Literary criticism consists of analysis of plot, character, theme, and creative language use. These skills are described and levels provided in the ELD and ELA frameworks.

To help develop a community of readers and encourage students to understand the richness of the literacy experience, teachers engage them in literature response groups. After having read a piece of literature, the teacher and a small group meet to discuss the piece. Each student is given an opportunity to express ideas about the story before a general discussion begins. The teacher listens and, after each student has had a turn, opens the discussion with a thought-provoking question.

As points are made, the teacher guides the students to deeper understandings by, for example, asking them to support their point with words from the text and asking what words or devices the author used to invoke a mood, establish a setting, describe a character, move the plot along, and so on.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

A Literature Response Group

Teacher Christina Dotts describes how literature response groups worked in her second-grade classroom. The students had read Tomi dePaola's *Now One Foot, Now the Other* (1981).

In planning this lesson, I was a bit apprehensive about the students' overall reaction to this type of discussion. However, I found that they enjoyed discussing the story in a more intimate setting as opposed to a whole-class discussion. These second graders were indeed up to the challenge of using higher-order thinking skills. One of my objectives was for the students to verbalize their thoughts and convey meaning. They needed practice in doing so. I discovered my students had definite ideas about major issues—illness, hospitals, family members, working, being responsible, and being good friends. Their concerns were very important in their lives, and this piece of literature and forum for discussion provided an opportunity for them to talk about these concerns. Students felt proud to lead discussions and exercise their leadership skills.

When Reading Intervention Is Needed

When English learners are struggling with literacy that is delivered using “regular” classroom instruction (including provision of high-quality ELD), many schools have adopted a “response to instruction” (RTI) model, a multilevel system with instructional interventions that increase in intensity (Freidman, 2010). If students do not succeed in the regular classroom (“Tier I”), they move to a secondary level of intervention that may feature small-group tutoring for 20–40 minutes at a time, three or four times per week, using packaged, perhaps scripted RTI lessons that are provided by the teacher, classroom teaching assistants, or literacy volunteers (Tier II).

Students who are not successful at this level may receive a tertiary program (Tier III) involving more intensive one-on-one strategies or even referral for special education screening. Thus RTI affords teachers a standard way to intervene in reading problems, using a standard set of materials and assessments to monitor progress. Although the use of the RTI model is widespread, research is scanty on the use of RTI with English learners, or the use of RTI in classrooms where

ELD is integrated—does this result in inclusive instruction with too many systems deployed simultaneously? Does incorporating structured interventions in reading result in more or fewer English learners being referred for special education? Fuchs, Fuchs, and Strecker (2010) discuss issues of RTI and inclusion, but not with ELD services as part of the mix.

Secondary-Level Content Reading

Reading in the content areas in high school was addressed according to specific disciplines in Chapter 5. There are also fundamental generic reading adaptations that teachers of English learners can make in their planning and instruction (see Box 7.3).

BOX 7.3

Generic Reading Adaptations for English Learners at the Secondary Level

- Use read-alouds.
- Create a print-rich environment.
- Accommodate students' interests and backgrounds.
- Read, read, read.
- Employ systematic, varied strategies for recognizing words.
- Offer a variety of reading methods to raise interest.
- Integrate language activities.
- Activate students' prior knowledge.
- Provide authentic purpose, materials, and audiences in the development of oracy and literacy.
- Construct, examine, and extend meaning.
- Furnish explicit instruction of what, when, and why.
- Present opportunities for students to take control of the reading process.

Despite the success of approaches based on social constructionism, a generation of students is being taught how to read through a series of controlled, behaviorally based lessons. Such programs as Reading Mastery, Open Court, and Direct Instruction employ teacher-centered methods in step-by-step curricula that follow highly structured, interactive scripts. Reading Mastery requires students to be grouped in precisely measured skill levels, and Open Court expects teachers to follow an exact script verbatim day by day to reinforce skills. Only time will tell if the students taught in this manner learn to read both for academics and for enjoyment. Groves makes the point that middle-class gifted students are not taught in such a prescriptive manner. It may be that being taught to read in this didactic manner is yet another social-class marker in the United States.

BEST PRACTICE

An Unconventional Assignment

The following instructions for an open-ended assignment can be adapted to a variety of units:

You have read a complex work of literature in Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*. To show what you have learned through your engagement with this play, create an interpretive text in any form of your choice: collage, painting, poetry, music, drama, sculpture,

performance art, or other textual form. Furthermore, you may use different forms within forms—that is, you can include a gravestone with an epitaph, a haiku, a song, an encyclopedia entry, a movie review, and so on, keeping in mind that it should in some way depict your understanding of the play’s characters, Roman history, or how some aspects of the play have helped you to learn something about yourself and your world.

You may produce this individually or with a group of five or less. You will have two class periods to work on it, with the rest of the preparation taking place outside of class. You must prepare a three- to five-minute presentation of your text to the class in which you explain its significance and your understanding of the play.

Source: Adapted from Smagorinsky, 2008, pp. 91–92

Writing and the English Learner

Hand in hand with reading goes writing, no longer considered an activity that can be postponed until English learners speak fluently. Writing in English is not only a key to academic success but also an outlet for self-expression.

Although much has been written about the writing process, it is more accurate to use the term *writing processes*. Most writers do not simply draft, revise, edit, and publish. Instead, the process is recursive, with much traveling back and forth from drafting to redrafting, from editing to redrafting, from revising to redrafting, and so forth. Many teachers teach a five-step writing process, but in reality, in a classroom with a rich learning environment, students are in various stages simultaneously. If teachers honor the reality of the learning process, rather than try to impose a lockstep system, they help students to stay engaged throughout the struggle to “write down” and clarify thinking.

Preparing Generation 1.5 for College Writing

Students who are still in the process of acquiring English are entering colleges and universities at an unprecedented rate. The good news is that English learners are being encouraged to pursue higher education. The bad news is that few are ready to perform college-level work. In the California State University system of twenty-two campuses, for example, more than 40 percent of entering freshmen each year are considered not ready for college-level work. Why are so many students unprepared for college—especially for college-level writing?

Many first-year college students are Generation 1.5 students, U.S.-educated English-language learners who immigrated to the United States while they were in elementary or high school or who were born in the United States but grew up speaking a language other than English at home. These students are diverse in terms of their prior educational experience, native- and English-language proficiency, language dominance, and academic literacy. They have learning needs that differ from other English learners and can benefit from targeted intervention in academic writing and other skills.

Students’ prior academic work and social situations may hamper their ability to participate in discourse at the university level. To become insiders in the world of academic culture, students must learn to write essays that express their personal values, experiences, knowledge, and questions. In this way, students can discover an “enlarging horizon that every discourse can open to [their] view” and “gradually enter the community of ‘knowers’ while retaining

their own voice” (Spellmeyer, 1989, p. 274). If high schools do not teach this kind of writing, students enter high education without this set of skills. How can K–12 do a better job with English learners?

Writing as a Social Construction

Writing is no longer seen as a lone pursuit of the individual. A sociocultural approach to writing holds that individuals engage in literacy for specific purposes, in specific contexts, and as participants in specific communities. Writers learn from one another as they take part in the larger community. The motivation for many students to improve their writing is not so much internal or intrinsic, but rather lies embedded in the social context in which the writing takes place.

Rodby (1999) described case studies of ELD students who were more or less able to draw on multiple and overlapping systems of support from work, home, church, clubs, peer interactions, faculty, and social/cultural systems to revise their writing in a pre-first-year English class. These students are examples of the way their social contexts influenced their literacy behavior, which in turn influenced their academic potential. Therefore, interventions to improve their writing must be sensitive to context and culture.

Stages of Writing Development for Young English Learners

Writing behavior on the part of children who are native speakers of English reflects a series of developmental stages, starting with *scribbling and drawing*. Then, at the *prephonemic* stage, the writer uses real letters, but the meaning stands for whole ideas. Moving on to the *early phonemic* stage, the writer uses letters—usually consonants—to stand for words, and at the *letter-naming* stage, vowels may accompany the consonants in an attempt to approximate phonemic sequences. As the writer goes through a *transitional* phase in moving toward *conventional* spelling, the child uses “invented” or “temporary” spelling to convey meaning. If children are held to correct spelling, they write much less (Hadaway, Vardell, & Young, 2002).

The actual spelling that children write is a fascinating indicator of their thinking and their emotions, as well as their progress in learning conventional forms. Kress (2000) looked at one child’s form, *dided* (“died”), and speculates that the child is struggling with overregularization of past tense, while another child, Emily, prints the upper case *E* with four horizontal strokes, perhaps an indication that this letter carries extra signification as the first letter of her name. Emergent spelling, whether it stems from first- or second-language acquisition, is a rich source of knowledge about intellectual and interlanguage development.

Beginning English learners usually enter English in the transitional phase; that is, they generally catch on to the sound–symbol principle of the alphabet, even if their own language is nonalphabetic. The more similar their home language alphabet is to the English alphabet, the more easily their writing skills will transfer to English. Word banks can be a rich source of vocabulary building; students can collect words on index cards to alphabetize, classify, or illustrate them. Beginning students can engage in interactive journal writing with their teacher, or complete simple frame sentences such as “I like _____ because _____.” They can copy words and sentences, or they can make their own books by copying and illustrating simple books (Hadaway et al., 2002).

Intermediate English learners increase their vocabulary as they attempt more complex sentences while writing. They can try their hand at various genres of personal and expressive writing, such as letter writing, as well as various types of academic writing such as note taking, short essays, and lists. Exercises in sentence combining help English learners extend the length

and variety of their writing. Students at this level of English acquisition are struggling with the correct forms of plural nouns, pronouns, verb tenses, and subject–verb agreement. Many errors appear at the sentence level, such as the correct use of adverb and adjective phrases and clauses, sentence fragments and run-on constructions, and collocation errors (inaccurate verb + preposition combinations).

Advanced English learners write responses to many academic assignments, such as personal or literary essays and written work on worksheets, laboratory manuals, and test questions. Their writing may feature many of the issues with which native speakers struggle, such as topic focus, parallel sentence structure, and paragraph cohesion.

The Importance of Writing in the Native Language

Some teachers discourage the use of a student's native language when writing, in the mistaken belief that drawing on their first language is a sign of interference with English. However, this is an example of the powerful difference between first and final drafts; one would hope that the unique voice of the writer is preserved in the polished version if the outcome is to be totally in English. However, Fu (2009) makes a persuasive case for the usefulness of code-switching when English learners write:

Code-switching is not only a necessary transitional state, but a useful strategy in promoting the growth of their English writing. When ELLs try to write in English, their thinking is often blocked due to their limited vocabulary. Code-switching can serve as a borrowing strategy by using the native language to fill in the English words they don't know, so they can continue their thinking process. (p. 49)

Many writers code-switch to express their emotions and identify. As one writer explains,

With two ways to say everything I'm hardly at a disadvantage. How I speak Spanish and English is a reflection of the culture I live every day. And unless there's something wrong with my almost bilingual and very bicultural life, then there's nothing wrong with combining the two languages I grew up with. Yo hablaré en dos idiomas as long as I can think in two. (Figuerola, 2004, p. 286)

However, the term “code-switching” connotes to many bilingual educators a failure to master one language or the other; hence the negative connotation to many of the term “Spanglish.” Replacing this negative connotation with the term “translanguaging” (see Chapter 6) removes the stigma of combining languages, with the understanding that allowing bilingual individuals to use their full linguistic repertoire when learning is helpful, and promotes biliteracy in the fullest sense.

Handwriting in English

The era has passed when handwriting was neglected. All students, but particularly English learners with primary languages that are nonalphabetic, need to learn the basics of letter formation, letter size and proportion, spacing, slant, alignment, and line quality (Barbe, Wasyluk, Hackney, & Braun, 1984). Letters are best learned when sorted by shape, with the line letters first (l, t, i, L, T, I, E, F, H), followed by angle (k, v, w, x, y, z, A, K, M, N, V, W, X, Y, Z); circle/line (o, a, b, d, p, q, O, Q); open circle (c, e, C, G); line/half-circle (B, D, P, R); curved (h, m, n, u, U); partial curve (f, r, j, g, J); and S-curve (s, S). TPR can be used to link physical actions with demonstrated commands to orient students to the forms of letters (Boyd-Batstone, 2006).

Writing Genres and Prompts

Almost all writing can be divided into narrative and expository genres. Both of these modes rely on description using visual images and observations to make details come alive for the reader.

Writing Narrative Prose Fiction is a “narrative or story about imaginary events, characters, and setting, made to seem real through description” (Houston, 2004, p. 130). Narratives usually proceed in a sequential recounting of events called the *plot*. Writers can create fiction out of personal experience; events presented in true-to-life form are considered biography or autobiography. Narratives of place are also personal in quality, evoking the writer’s experience of detail and mood.

Prompts are questions or opening sentences of an essay given to writers to provoke content. How many college admission prompts are versions of “Describe an experience that shows one of your important personal qualities”? What narrative prompts have in common is evocation of personal experience. What makes a narrative outstanding is the unique response to a prompt. This quality of uniqueness argues for prompts that are not too prescriptive but leave room for an imaginative response. Contemporary writing does not hold the narrative to a strictly linear plot but meshes time with memory in more fluid ways.

Consider, for example, the mystery called forth by Ian Frazier’s opening sentence to his essay entitled “Hungry Minds; Tales from a Chelsea Soup Kitchen” (2008). With this opening, the mind of the reader races ahead to uncover more information:

The Church of the Holy Apostles, at the corner of Twenty-eighth Street and Ninth Avenue in Manhattan, is a church only two-sevenths of the time.

Writing Expository Prose Structured formats are more common in writing that persuades, describes a process, presents two sides of an issue, or explains cause and effect (Oshima & Hogue, 2006). To follow the argument, the reader must have a carefully sequenced set of facts and background information, tied together with attention to sequence and logic connectors. The short research paper is an example of this genre. Although narrative writing depends on chronological prepositions, conjunctions, and transition words (*at first, after that, later on*), expository essays require more logical phrases (*as a result, for instance, in that case, because of*). Even small words such as *then* and *thus* have distinct meanings, making the job of the writing teacher one of clarifying students’ thinking as well as improving their prose styling.

The Writing Workshop

In the workshop environment, students are free to talk with one another as they write. English learners can draw on other students, not just the teacher, as a resource, and can in turn use their own experiences to enrich their writing and that of their peers. The teacher’s role, then, becomes that of facilitator and listener.

Writing can be fun if students write collaboratively. Students can brainstorm and share ideas and then write these ideas in a list form that resembles poetry. One useful convention is the phrase “I used to _____ but now _____.” Once the story is completed, it can be copied onto a chart and used for reading practice. This is a version of the language experience approach that connects students to their own experiences and activities by having them express themselves orally.

Students may enjoy writing buddy journals, a kind of diary in which a pair of students write back and forth to each other. The teacher models this by suggesting sample topics and perhaps putting a daily journal entry on the board: “Today I feel excited about the field trip. I

got up extra early to find something to pack in my lunch!” (The buddy journals are not as private as a teacher–student dialogue journal might be, because every two weeks or so the students change buddies, and the new buddies have access to previous entries.)

The process approach to writing involves several stages: the planning or prewriting stage, the writing stage, and the feedback/editing stage.

The Writing Process: Prewriting During *prewriting*, students are involved in oral language experiences that develop their need and desire to write. These activities may include talking and listening about shared experiences, reading literature, brainstorming, or creating role-playing or other fantasy activities. Mind mapping encourages students to generate and organize their ideas graphically on chart paper or on the chalkboard. Some classes may use *Inspiration*, a computer program that facilitates idea generation.

The prewriting phase helps to generate, incubate, explore, test, and integrate ideas. Most writers find it often helps to talk about a topic, bouncing ideas off others, benefiting from the questions others ask as they shape and explore ideas. Not only does this help students build a representation of the topic about which they are writing, but also the challenges, prompts, and questions from collaborators help to fashion a working representation of the assignment or task.

Some writers experience prolonged silent periods, whereas others report heightened emotional states or sudden bursts of productivity. The best writing springs from creative sources within the person. The most profound education reaches deep into the individual, and in reaching deeply, evokes a range of emotional reactions: distraction, preoccupation, restlessness, excitability, or even gloom and despondency. Teachers who respect passion sympathize with its companion emotions. In fact, evoking emotions is a key to writing as well as other learning (see Bucholtz, Casillas, & Lee, 2018). The alternative? Apathy.

The Writing Process: Drafting The drafting stage involves quickly capturing ideas. There may be several false starts, changes of mind, and search for more ideas. Writers do the best they can in spelling, vocabulary, and syntax, without a concern for accuracy. This is followed by revision. Students share and discuss the content and clarity of their writing, drawing on the teacher as a resource for advice and support. This helps students to expand their thinking and communicate more expressively before editing perfects the form and grammar.

A *word wall* or *word bank* is useful for English learners, providing a visual representation of words they may need to draw on while writing. For example, a pictorial word wall for a unit on fairy tales might include matched pictures and the printed words *queen*, *king*, *castle*, *crown*, and other words that a writer might need to use. This helps English learners to be more fluent as they draft their ideas.

Self-Correction and Revision Writers face similar problems as they draft. Gregory and Kuzmich (2005) suggest that the following components can be used for student self-assessment:

Ideas: Is my message clear? Do I know enough about my topic? Did I try hard to make it interesting?

Organization: Does the paper have a good beginning? Are things told in a logical order? Does the paper end well?

Conventions: Are there paragraphs? Are words spelled correctly? Did I use appropriate capitalization and punctuation?

Voice: Does the writing sound like me? Are the thoughts clear to the reader? Will the reader be interested?

Feedback Through Peer Response and Writing Conferences Students can give one another feedback through formal “sharing” meetings, organized by the teacher, in which students read their work and ask peers for comments; or they can be informal, student-initiated interactions. Peer response can be more valuable than teacher feedback in helping writers analyze their own drafts. To be useful, peer responding must be modeled and taught as part of the writing process from the beginning so that students are aware of writing for their peers as well as for the teacher.

One way to shape peer response is to provide students with a peer review sheet that is specifically designed for the writing prompt or the evaluation criteria for the final paper. These might include the following:

- Is the title specific, related to the central idea?
- Does the introductory paragraph preview the entire paper?
- Is the thesis clearly stated? Does it tie the ideas together?
- Are paragraphs logically organized? Are claims supported by evidence?
- Is there a clear differentiation between writer's ideas and those of other authors?
- Is there a concluding paragraph discussing the significance of the ideas?
- Is there appropriate grammar and usage?

Peer response to writing is not editing. It should include feedback about the content, point of view, and tone of the work. This helps students focus on the communicative content of the writing and draws them together in a more respectful sharing of the messages they intend.

Individual writing conferences with the teacher are interviews in which the teacher listens to each student talk about the work in progress, commenting and asking questions to help the student organize and focus the writing. This questioning also helps the teacher understand the student's topic and focus. Ideally, the tone of the conference makes it clear that the writer is in charge. The writer speaks first to set the agenda and communicate the intended meaning. The teacher may then query specific sections (“What is the main point of this part?”) and offer suggestions as alternatives.

The Writing Process: Editing After the message is intact, editing takes place to “fix up” errors or mistakes in usage and spelling. Students who learn to self-edit can examine their own writing critically and improve it. The teacher's proofreading is beneficial only if the students can use it to improve their own writing.

If a perfected version is not necessary, students may archive their rough drafts in a portfolio, without rewriting. If, however, the writing is published or publicly shared, and students are to achieve the pride of authorship, accuracy in such areas as spelling is more warranted.

Error Correction In the early stages of writing English, fluency is a much more vital goal than accuracy. With English learners, the teacher must consider the level of their general language proficiency before decisions about error correction can be made. With younger children and newcomers, one should encourage expression of ideas without correcting grammar. Writers should be rewarded for their courage in trying new formats and more complicated sentence syntax, with encouragement for risk-taking. Error correction is a process in which attention is paid to the communication of meaning and the learner is guided toward self-correction.

Proofreading marks should be simple and consistent. Moreover, teachers may wish to use *restrictive correcting*, a focus on only a few types of errors at one time. Some instructors set certain standards of submission before accepting a paper, such as requiring that a word-processed paper be electronically spellchecked. Each instructor of writing sets his or her own

level of importance to what Houston (2004) called the “cosmetic” aspects of writing—the level of error correction that creates “optimum readability” (Houston, 2004, p. 227). When the emphasis is on ideas, the first draft may actually be more important than the final version. The reverse may be true when student writing is displayed on PTA Night.

Publishing Ways of publishing can vary: A play is performed, a story is bound into a book for circulation in the class library, a poem is read aloud, an essay is posted on a bulletin board, a video is made of a student reading aloud, or a class newspaper is circulated to the community. Desktop publishing software has made more readily accessible the look of professional typesetting and layout, usually using a simple page layout computer program combined with a word processor. When printed, the class newspaper can circulate to the school and community.

Issues with ESL Writing

Selecting a topic can sometimes be a concern for English learners. Not all writers find a topic of a personal nature, such as childhood experiences, particularly fruitful for generating ideas. Being familiar with a topic is no guarantee of writing ease. Just because a topic is popular with native English speakers is no guarantee that the topic will enable English learners.

Establishing a tone may be difficult for English learners, especially at the young adult level. Tones to avoid are flippancy (disrespectful levity), sarcasm (contemptuous remarks), sentimentality (shallow feeling), self-righteousness (taking on a special claim to virtue), belligerence (trying to bully the reader into agreement), and apology (“poor little me”) (Packer, 2006).

Issues of plagiarism may be difficult to convey. Students may feel pressure to help others by letting them copy, they may have different “rules” about using others’ work in their own cultures, or they may simply work together in a way that results in identical copies of student work. At a deeper level, however, plagiarism may occur because English learners feel coerced into writing in English, either due to social, academic, or economic demands on their lives, or to feeling a lack of ownership over English. The best solution to the problem of plagiarism is to give students support and accurate feedback at various stages in their writing, offering specific guidelines and training in using “textual borrowing” strategies (Bloch, 2001, p. 246).

The use of dictionaries and the library are two areas in which English learners may need guidance and direction. Many students rely on bilingual dictionaries, which in their brevity do not always supply accurate translations. Teaching dictionary skills explicitly can be of great help to students; especially those whose first language is non alphabetic. International students sometimes rely on pocket translating devices, which do not always supply accurate translations.

English learners may not be familiar with the use of a library, especially if such resources are not available in their native culture. Students more familiar with libraries may simply need special training about the library’s features, such as the electronic card catalog. In other cases, students who may have come to rely on the libraries within their own families, if they are among the elite, or who may never have had occasion to use a library will require more help in learning to navigate its resources. Table 7.5 summarizes adaptations in writing for English learners.

Writing in the Age of the Internet

Writing in an Internet-based environment requires a change in assumptions and procedures from writing in the past. According to Knobel and Lankshear (2006), a different

TABLE 7.5 Adaptations in Writing for English Learners

Writing Strategies	Description
Write. Write. Write.	Provide students with a wide variety of opportunities to write and share their writing. Write in all subject areas. Encourage students to use and practice writing across the curriculum.
Invite authentic writing.	Set up tasks that have real purpose and real audiences.
Offer examples of good writing.	Furnish access to a variety of written materials and examples of good writing. Make the expression of thoughts and ideas the primary goal, with correctness of form secondary.
Model writing as a process.	Writing is developmental and takes time; steps in writing are made visible and practiced.
Schedule writing conferences.	Confer individually with students on a regular basis to enhance students' self-assessment of their own writing skills and their understanding of the processes.
Teach students "how to write."	Present explicit instruction, often in the form of mini-lessons, demonstrating what students are expected to do in their writing.
Allow time to learn supportive skills.	Reinforce writing skills such as prewriting, planning, drafting, revising, and editing on a daily basis; establish a routine for these behaviors and encourage students to use their own strategies, move naturally between states, and work at their own pace.
Provide clear criteria for evaluation.	Foster independence and responsibility by providing criteria (e.g., rubrics, exemplars) students can use to evaluate their own writing.
Include contextual instruction in grammar.	Grammar is taught within the context of writing, not in isolation, and also emphasizes strategies consistent with individual learner needs.
Use the inquiry method.	Create structured assignments based on inquiry to help students produce writing that expands strategy use, accommodates a variety of purposes and audiences, and addresses increasingly complex topics.
Develop writing portfolios.	Establish portfolios to monitor and evaluate students' writing abilities in different genres and to provide students with greater responsibility for their progress as writers through self-assessment of their own work.
Involve students in the evaluation process.	Students are held accountable for their own growth and employ multiple measures to assess literacy skills.

approach is needed, one that "inevitably involves networks, collaboration, and shared visions of how knowledge is made and distributed differently in digital space" (p. 80). In other words, digital writing is not just writing using technology instead of paper and pencil, but rather is about designs of meaning that may employ aural, spatial, and gestural modalities as well as visual.

Digital writing differs from traditional writing in other respects too; the audience is potentially vast, and the information offered is obtained from an ever-expanding multiplicity of sources. Writers must access, organize, and process more information than ever before, in multiple new forms of visual and vocally enhanced communication, including blogs, YouTube videos, wikis, and webinars, to name but a few. For example, bloggers use cyberspace to "reflect on their own ideas, comment on other blogs, and synthesize their readings from other sources . . . utilizing the full capacity of blogs as a literacy practice, not just replicating traditional practices in an online space" (Hicks, 2009, p. 16).



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

A Class Wiki on Censorship

In a high-school-level lesson plan regarding activity about censorship, Sara Beauchamps-Hicks designed a wiki page that encompasses a number of tasks: Students visit various websites, view multimedia on the topic, discuss what they have found, and add content to their group's wiki. Classroom groups use Google Docs to create a shared text that all group members can edit. Beauchamps-Hicks guides students through the research process, encouraging them to develop new ideas about censorship. Her goal is for students to grow as digital writers who produce their own texts rather than just consume information.

Source: Hicks, 2009, p. 17

The Role of Grammar

Following Chomsky's lead, linguists envision grammar as a set of rules that human beings unconsciously know and use. They believe that human beings, once exposed to the language(s) of their environment, have an innate ability to understand and produce sentences they have never before heard, because the mind has the capacity to internalize and construct language rules that help native speakers determine whether a group of words forms a sentence in their language.

If application of the rules of sentence formation is largely unconscious, what role does explicit teaching of grammar play? There are two ways to think about this. First, linguists are not clear on how first- and SLA of grammar differ. Krashen's acquisition hypothesis (see Chapter 3) claimed that second-language syntax was acquired in the same order as that of the first language, but it is not clear if the same internal brain mechanisms are involved. Moreover, if SLA follows different brain pathways (and in most people's subjective experience, this is true, learning a second language is more difficult than learning the first, which is why more people are not bilingual), then there is a role for explicit teaching of grammar.

However, when deciding if, and how much, explicit grammar to teach, and how much accuracy to demand in students' writing, teachers must pose three important questions: What is the goal of grammar instruction? How much time should be allocated for it? How can it be made interesting to students at any age? Grammar has a larger role to play in SLA if the learner intends to achieve advanced proficiency, or if a highly structured environment fits the learners' cognitive style. One might argue that the older and more disciplined the learner, the larger a role explicit instruction in grammar could play. In answer to the last question, grammar—even grammar drills—can be presented in a format that is entertaining (use a search engine to find “grammar games”).

Benefits of Explicit Instruction of Language

SLA, as a domain of learning, is difficult. To attain linguistic and cultural proficiency requires precise control of meaning, careful attunement to intonation, and mastery of behavioral subtlety. Explicit instruction usually means direct instruction (with goals, activities, and assessment strictly determined by the teacher or other authorities) combined with precise error correction or other overt feedback.

The earliest type of language teaching was grammar-translation pedagogy, in which the instructor explained the meaning of vocabulary words and the structure of sentences, and

students' access to the target language was limited to a carefully controlled curriculum. The strengths of this methodology are that those skilled in traditional school behaviors—memorization and rote learning—receive good grades. Moreover, the explaining and translating involve the first language—little of this instruction takes place directly in the target language. Therefore, students are more likely to find the explanations and translations comprehensible.

Drawbacks to this direct instruction include limited independent language acquisition, minimal access to the target language and culture, and little social interaction with target-language speakers. Speaking and listening—the foundations of the brain's acquisition of language—are restricted, and oral proficiency is seldom achieved. Grammar-focused lessons that are not communicatively based can also be boring, cumbersome, and difficult for students.

Explicit teaching may be required when some basic feature of English is so illogical or dissimilar to the first language that it is not easily understood, even in context. Aspects of English grammar that may offer exceptional challenge to English learners include use of word order, determiners (*this, that, these, those, a, an, the*), prepositions (*in, on, at, by, for, from, of*), auxiliaries (*do, be, have*), conjunctions (*but, so, however, therefore, though, although*), interrogatives, intensifiers (*some, any, few, more, too*), and distinctions among modal verbs (*can, could, would, should, may, might, must*). Phrasal verbs (*look over, pick up*) also present considerable difficulty to Spanish speakers learning communicative English.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Explicit Feedback During Reading Tutoring

The following exchange during the tutoring of reading shows explicit teaching of the sound-symbol connection in English:

Pedro: Miscele?

Tutor: /mus/ . . .

Pedro: /musk/

Tutor: *Muscle* has what is called silent /c/; you see it but you don't pronounce it. *Muscle* without /c/ sounds like /mus/.

Pedro: Muscle.

The Role of Feedback in Explicit Teaching

Feedback is essential to the knowledge and performance of any new skill, usually involving explicit error correction, but it can also mean indirect hints. A teacher's job is to understand the conditions under which feedback works best. For example, a teacher needs to know that students benefit from the time teachers spend providing extensive responses on writing. But what is known about feedback in language learning? Under what conditions are the different forms effective for particular learners? The answers to such questions would enable teachers to predict which responses are likely to work best.

Feedback is integrated differently into different types of practice. For example, communicative activities are usually low in feedback as long as participants are understandable; grammar instruction tends to invite right/wrong correction; and oral presentations produce feedback on clarity, organization, and audibility. Modality of language (e.g., written, oral,

computer-mediated) influences the type of feedback—people are usually more anxious about feedback on their oral performances than on their written products, and most people are not at all upset about feedback received during computerized tutoring.

Although research on feedback is still underway, some general principles are well known, such as the idea that highly anxious learners need positive as well as corrective feedback. To date, there has been scarce research on the characteristics of learners that enable them to learn from feedback. This is a promising avenue for further investigation. Whatever research is carried out on this subject should be combined with formative assessment, as feedback can be considered a kind of formative assessment.

BEST PRACTICE Error Correction Guidelines

Systematic errors, such as Chinese learners' omissions of past-tense declensions in verbs ("Yesterday he drinks"), are a window into the learner's thinking. A thoughtful awareness of error is the best teacher. The more language is produced, the more errors are made, the more learning can occur. The goal is to have the learner produce as much language as possible and create awareness about errors.

At the beginning ELD level, learners need to listen to and look at language but not be required to produce it in public, where errors are an embarrassment. Individual or paired practice is useful, including high-interest activities with lots of visuals, controlled vocabulary, and simple sentence structures.

At the early intermediate and intermediate levels, high-interest activities in which errors do not impede the communication of meaning are useful. Tasks are structured to accomplish focused growth in measurable ways, balanced by language activities in which the learner is interested and successful.

At the early advanced and advanced levels, error correction focuses on learner self-correction, balanced by targeted teacher feedback. Emphasis is equal across grammatical, strategic, sociolinguistic, and discourse functions.

Because assessment is such an important part of the contemporary emphasis on learning, error correction and formative assessment as feedback are featured in the discussions that follow on the teaching of each specific modality (listening/speaking, reading, and writing).

The Supplemental Role of Implicit Learning

In addition to explicit instruction, implicit learning has a role in SLA. By providing grammar in context in an implicit manner, we can expose students to substantial doses of grammar study without alienating them from the learning of English. One can teach short grammar-based sessions, immediately followed by additional function-based lessons in which the new grammar or structure is applied in context, and trust that the brain will absorb the grammar point while communication takes place.

Current studies have combined explicit and implicit instruction under the term *focus-on-form* approach. Gascoigne (2002) discussed the arguments for and against explicit teaching of grammar and suggested the use of such methods as boldfacing target grammar forms in a text, raising the learner's consciousness about forms through various noticing activities, and careful choice of activities that involve correcting language forms.

Teaching Grammar

Teachers are often uncertain about what features of grammar to include in language teaching. Savage, Bitterlin, and Price (2010) propose several key principles of grammar teaching:

- Grammar teaching needs to be connected closely to social functions of language—the language that people need to function in their daily lives.
- The focus should be on forms that are used routinely and are necessary to convey meaning. The verb tenses of present, past, and future, for example, are essential for people to establish conversation, whereas other tenses like the past perfect (*I had eaten before I left*) are less common and therefore less important.
- Grammar instruction in an academic context is most useful for success in school. Error correction that takes place indirectly, in the context of school assignments, is easier for the learner to accept and does not threaten one's self-confidence as might overt oral grammar correction.

Grammar is taught explicitly by using a grammar book that presents systematic reference and explains grammar points with a suitable degree of accuracy. ELD classroom materials are beginning to include grammar books as an integral part of the curriculum.

A focus on correct usage and sentence structure—including spelling, capitalization, and punctuation—is important for English learners, although this should not be taken to the extreme. Often, mainstream teachers base their estimation of students' academic potential on a few key features of written production—namely, the look of writing, such as legible handwriting, correct spelling of basic words, and well-formed sentences. Therefore, as students write—for purposes of critical thinking, reaction to literature, or project-based learning—some products of their writing should be taken to the final, corrected draft stage.

Working with Syntax Awareness of sentence structure can be enhanced by having students work creatively with sentences. They can *expand* sentences by adding details to a simple sentence (“I went home for lunch” becomes “I skipped home with my mama’s tortilla at the tip of my tongue”). They can *link* sentences by taking an element from a simple sentence and using it to create an image-rich subsequent sentence (“My cat brought me a lizard in her mouth.” [The idea = something about the lizard] “I couldn’t tell if that lizard was dead or just pretending”). They can *rearrange* sentences by moving internal phrases to the opening slot (“Lisa drives her tricycle out front to meet Papa when he comes home from work”/“When Papa comes home from work . . .”).

Working with Parts of Speech Students who are familiar with parts of speech can make better use of dictionaries to improve their writing. Table 7.6 displays commonly used terms. For a more explicit definition of these terms one might consult a grammar book.

Writing for Grammar Writing tasks can incorporate correct usage. One example is a tongue-in-cheek book that students produced about points of interest in the surrounding neighborhoods, *The Homegirls’ Guide to South Seventh Street*. Key stores, names of streets, and even car brands were correctly capitalized. For a class meal, another group collected recipes from home that featured the imperative form of the verb (“Slice cucumbers thinly”). Thus, correct usage and grammar can be an integral part of learning activities. Correct usage such as punctuation, capitalization, and paragraph structure is emphasized in the context of composition, allowing grammar to be taught in an integrated way, which includes a special focus on difficult features when necessary.

TABLE 7.6 Parts of Speech

Part of Speech	Example
noun	concrete (if countable, can form plurals): <i>apple, apples</i> abstract (often takes no plural): <i>happiness</i>
noun phrase (often composed of article, adjective, and noun)	<i>the long road</i>
pronoun	personal (<i>I, you</i>) interrogative (<i>who, which</i>) relative (<i>whomever</i>)
adjective	<i>helpful, charming</i>
verb	dynamic: <i>jump, seem</i> stative: <i>am, are</i> auxiliary: <i>have been</i> (helping)
verb phrase (verb plus auxiliary, verb plus adverb or adverb phrase)	<i>have been running</i> <i>running away from home</i>
adverb	<i>slowly</i>
adverbial phrase	<i>at work</i> <i>along the highway</i>
preposition	<i>on, under, beside</i>
determiner	(definite article) <i>the</i> (indefinite article) <i>a</i> possessive (<i>his, our</i>) demonstrative (<i>that, this</i>) quantifier (<i>some, any</i>)
conjunction	<i>and, but</i>

Content-Based English-Language Development

Content literacy is the ability to use reading and writing for the acquisition of new content in a given discipline. In content-based instruction (CBI) ELD classrooms, ELD educators, in collaboration with content teachers, organize learning objectives around academic subjects to prepare students to master grade-level curricula. This is a supplement to the students’ English class.

Content literacy is more than “having knowledge” in a particular discipline; it represents skills needed to acquire knowledge of content and make it easier for the student to read and write in the discipline. This literacy is content specific; an individual who can read and write about science may not be able to do so in mathematics. However, being able to think clearly, understand key concepts, and express oneself are cognitive skills that do generalize across disciplines, so efforts to promote content literacy in one subject can positively affect learning in other subjects.

CBI-ELD classes develop not only language proficiency but also content knowledge, cognitive strategies, and study skills. Teachers familiarize students with the difference in the style and structure of texts and the type of vocabulary featured in the particular discipline. Reference might be made to background knowledge restricted to that content area, along with abstract, specialized, and difficult vocabulary.

Collaboration and Reciprocity

Content-based instruction can be of great benefit if content instructors and language teachers work together to provide comprehensible input to the learner, as well as to design tasks that are both understandable and important. Systematic, planned instruction must present vocabulary, concepts, and structures that are required for mastery of the content. Whether an *adjunct* model—having the language teacher assist in content teaching by providing additional contact and support—or a *collaborative* model—with the ELD teacher coteaching the content course—is chosen, providing English instruction coupled with content-specific instruction increases the likelihood of academic success.

Is the collaboration between ELD and content instructors reciprocal? If ELD teachers teach content, then the content teachers should also include language-development objectives along with content objectives. If this is not the case, then content-based ELD unfortunately positions ELD teachers as adjunct content instructors, which leads instructors of other disciplines to believe that ELD is not a content domain in its own right. This tends to undermine the professional status of ELD. The collaboration with content instructors should be two-way, with both types of classes having language and content objectives.

CBI-ELD: Lesson Planning

In CBI-ELD, the content to be taught, general instructional goals, and time available for instruction are negotiated with the content teacher. One important factor in the success of CBI-ELD is the ELD teacher's past experiences in teaching similar content or ability to transfer knowledge gained from teaching similar concepts in other disciplines.

Five types of reading lesson plans are commonly used in content-based ESL (McKenna & Robinson, 1997). Table 7.7 describes the five lesson types in detail.

Literacy in the Cyber Age

Internet tools can extend literacy activities into the “real” world and provide English learners with opportunities to practice reading and writing from their own homes or from local libraries. Students can work individually or with others to create blog entries or comment on others' work, to share information or chat on social networking sites, to “surf” the Net for content relating to their hobbies or interests, or just to practice reading and writing anonymously in cyberspace. Literacy takes on a whole new meaning when each user can access, consume, develop, edit, and share—whether during class or beyond the school day.

Today's students grew up in a technology-enhanced learning environment; even in low-income schools, buying tablet computers has become a “fix-all” way to raise reading levels, interest students in the curriculum, and sustain engagement. To tie together school and after-school efforts, students are often sent home with learning games on mobile devices to drill vocabulary, reinforce what they have learned in the classroom, or provide virtual platforms that offer knowledge mixed with entertainment (edutainment). Every day, students swim in a dynamic surf of peer texts, social media interaction, YouTube downloads, Instagram posts, and streaming content that promises instant gratification. How can schools compete?

Researchers are beginning to discover that the personalized learning offered by mobile devices is not always as effective as is touted; students may be distracted by other input when

TABLE 7.7 Types of Reading Lesson Plans in ELD Content-Based Instruction

Lesson Plan Type	Directions to Teacher
Directed Reading Activity Advantages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Flexible, purposeful Disadvantage: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ May be too teacher-directed 	Establish readiness for reading, relating to students' prior knowledge and preteaching vocabulary or specialized skills (maps or charts, etc.). Set purposes for reading (analyze goals and communicate these goals to students). Arrange for students to read silently. Discuss the reading. Extend students' understanding by using supplementary materials or by assigning a writing task.
Directed Reading–Thinking Activity Advantages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Emphasizes the reading–thinking connection ■ Encourages students to set own purposes Disadvantage: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Not well suited to new or unfamiliar material 	Help students set purposes for reading; check students' prior knowledge, preteaching concepts if necessary; encourage students to predict content using cues. Facilitate reasoning as students read. Help students test their predictions, locating and discussing bases for conclusions.
K-W-L (What do I K now, What do I W onder about, What have I L earned). Advantages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Activates prior knowledge ■ Establishes group purposes Disadvantage: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Not well suited to unfamiliar material 	Brainstorm with students to elicit prior knowledge of the topic, then discuss, grouping ideas into subtopics. Select subtopics of interest based on what they need to know; have students write out their interests. Assess what was learned by the reading.
Explicit Teaching Advantage: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Permits clear-cut, sequential planning Disadvantages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ May encourage overreliance on teacher for direction ■ Literacy activities may be avoided when planning 	Create readiness by a positive introduction and by communicating objectives clearly. Teach concepts directly, checking for understanding, reteaching if needed. Provide opportunities for guided and independent practice.
Listen-Read-Discuss Advantage: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Effective with low-ability readers Disadvantages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Does not appear to encourage voluntary reading ■ May encourage overreliance on teacher for direction ■ Highly teacher-directed 	Present complete text through lecture and demonstration. Give students a chance to read the material silently. Conduct a discussion of the selection.

Source: McKenna & Robinson, 1997.

using their mobile phone to learn. Chen and Yan (2018) found that mobile-phone multitasking—especially with social media—has a negative impact on reading speed, reading comprehension, and lecture recall. Despite the point of view of many that multitasking is a virtue, students are often no better than adults at doing cognitively demanding tasks while multitasking. Adults may need to tear themselves away from their own mobile phones to restrict their children's screen time or to support the concentration needed to get homework finished.

Possibilities for Alternative Literacies

Although much has been made of the role of technology in new forms of literacy, Jiménez (2003) explored an “ecologies of literacy” perspective in asking the question “What forms of literacy serve the English learner community?” He pointed to “syncretic literacy” practices, in which students fuse their in-school and out-of-school literacies to create usable forms of literacy for their daily lives. Students who must serve as language brokers for their families in navigating rental/lease agreements, income tax forms, and telephone/utility bills in English must address their own and their families’ short- and long-term goals using a combination of native-language and English oracy and literacy skills. González, Moll, and Amanti (2005) employed the term “funds of knowledge” to capture the information access and language skills that communities use and need if they are to survive and prosper into subsequent generations.

Fisher and Frey (2009) caution that the digital age has brought speed at the expense of thoughtfulness. This is a thought-provoking coda to a chapter on reading and writing for English learners.

The new literacies of the digital world allow people to locate, create, and disseminate information at breathtaking speed. Yet this accelerated pace can come at a cost to critical literacy. As it becomes increasingly easier to post to a blog, add to a wiki space, or upload a video, the temporal speed that naturally occurred with slower modes has vanished. And with it, lingering over ideas and taking on other viewpoints have evaporated as well. (pp. 137–138).



Although many forms of literacy delivery are changing from print to electronic media, the importance of reading proficiency in the lives of English learners has not changed. Television and the Internet deliver a wide variety of entertainment to the home, tempting many young people from the rigors of homework; yet the individual must learn to marshal books, study materials, media literacy, and other forms of information in the service of academic achievement. Teachers who teach study skills and other literacy strategies systematically can help English learners to read and write across a variety of genres using a variety of media. The forms of media may change dramatically in the years ahead; the need for literacy—including biliteracy—will remain as the greatest challenge facing English learners.



Assessment of English Learners

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter, you should be able to . . .

- Describe federal mandates for the assessment of English learners, as well as the variety of state standards governing the provision of English-language development services; and contrast the advantages and disadvantages of establishing content and performance standards for English learners;
- Explain the role of assessment in instruction, various purposes for assessment in the schools, and the process of identifying, placing, progress-tracking, and redesignating English learners;
- Characterize and compare language and content-area assessments, giving examples of each; clarify the use of interventions and accommodations when assessing English learners both formally and informally; and
- Depict the learning difficulties that English learners might face, especially those with special needs; and describe the process of referring English learners to special education services and the adaptations that might be necessary to tailor listening, reading, and writing tasks to meet the needs of special learners who are linguistically and culturally diverse.

Human beings have been learning for millennia. The traditional proof that learning had taken place was in the product—people could clearly see that a field was plowed productively or a house was built in a sturdy manner. Classroom learning differs because the outcomes are often more abstract and difficult to measure. Assessment is a way of ensuring that students are making progress and that instructional activities are designed wisely. The use of standards helps educators to agree on the expectations and content of English-language instruction and be certain that the school successes of English-language development

(ELD) learners are clearly documented. Using these standards, assessment becomes the measure of whether students have acquired the desired skills and knowledge.

Some assessments are informal means of checking to see whether students understand instruction, whereas the purpose of others is to report to the government whether students have met predetermined standards. The emphasis on standards dovetails with outcome-based learning, a philosophy of education that relies on an explicit connection between specific goals and actual outcomes. To receive funds under the federal Every Student Succeeds Act, states must measure student progress on statewide achievement tests. The role of teachers is to describe in detail what students are expected to accomplish in terms of these standards, and then to design learning activities that will enable students to meet the standards.

This chapter addresses the various kinds of assessments, the different educational contexts in which assessments take place, and ways that these assessments can be used to evaluate student learning. Included in this chapter are implications of assessment for English learners and a description of the role of teachers in the assessment process.

Principles of Standards-Based Assessment and Instruction

Standards-Based Education: Federal Government Mandates

Under the Constitution of the United States, each state has the right to govern the schools under its jurisdiction. At the 1989 Education Summit in Charlottesville, Virginia, President George H. W. Bush and the nation's governors proposed a long-term national education strategy (often referred to as Goals 2000) that would expand the role the federal government played in education. The call went out for national professional organizations to articulate clear, high standards for what students should know (content standards) and how well they should know it (performance standards). Then the states were supposed to establish delivery standards, a description of what all schools must provide for students to achieve these standards. All students were to be measured at intervals (for example, in fourth, eighth, and tenth or twelfth grade). These standards and assessments together constituted a voluntary accountability system.

Standards-based reform promoted by the Goals 2000: Educate America Act and the 1994 reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (Improving America's Schools Act) required that each state desiring to receive federal funds for education had to apply standards and assessments to English learners by the 2000–2001 school year, showing that English learners were making adequate yearly progress (AYP). However, rather than develop separate tests designed to accurately measure the progress that English learners make when they are taught and tested in a foreign language (English), most states opted to include English learners in assessments designed and used for mainstream populations, offering English learners testing modification and accommodation.

The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) incorporated this accountability system into law in 2001, requiring that all students be “proficient” in reading and mathematics by the 2013–2014 school year. Beginning in 2005–2006, all public school students in third through eighth grade had to be tested annually, using state achievement tests. This group included English learners, who were to be assessed in a valid and reasonable manner that included fair accommodations and, to the extent practicable, testing in the primary language. Those students who had completed thirty months of schooling, however, had to be tested in English reading

(with special exemptions available on a case-by-case basis and students living in Puerto Rico automatically exempted). States also were to establish baseline proficiency goals to which yearly progress would be compared.

Under the 2015 reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), states are still held accountable to gauge students' school achievement if they want access to federal funds. Under NCLB, schools that failed to make AYP for two years in a row were subject to corrective action. This is "high-stakes" assessment—the reputation and resources of schools and teachers rest on students' test performance. The ESSA, which is somewhat more flexible than NCLB, only requires that states submit an accountability plan. These plans vary in their goals, chosen indicators of academic achievement, and percentage of total student that must be tested. Because ESSA went into effect for school year 2017–2018, no state as of 2018 had yet suffered corrective action for failing to meet its regulations.

Although ESSA, like NCLB, mandates that states desiring federal funds produce AYP reporting for students with limited English proficiency (LEP), deep-seated structural flaws undermine the validity and reliability of the data that can be collected under such a reporting system (Abedi, 2004). For example, the category of "English learner" is not defined in similar ways across states, and in many states, the sparse population of English learners makes comparisons with mainstream populations statistically unreliable. The largest problem, however, is inherent in the logic of the category itself. When an English learner is redesignated into a more proficient group, he or she is no longer a member of the less proficient subgroup, preventing it from including its most successful members. In other words, those who "graduate" from the LEP group are not counted as successful members of the group, resulting in a sense that LEP students are not making progress.

Another obstacle comes from testing students whose primary language is not Spanish—19 percent (about 912,000 students) of the English learners in the United States—for whom primary-language tests are often not available. For example, Texas required English learners to take the state's high-stakes test—the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS), even though Valenzuela (2004) and others argued that this constituted a profound disservice to a subset of English learners because the TAKS test was only offered in English and Spanish. Non-Spanish-speaking English language learners (ELLs) had no choice but to take the TAKS in English. Presumably the same criticism can be made about the replacement of TAKS, the State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR), which consists of a series of standardized tests used in K–12 schools to assess a student's achievements and knowledge learned at each grade level, which are not offered in low-incidence languages.

For example, Wright and Li (2006) showed that Cambodian students in Texas faced severe linguistic hardship when tested on math concepts in English. The researchers concluded that "linguistically accommodated testing" rarely occurs, causing hardship to students who cannot be tested in their native languages. The unrealistic expectations for student achievement under these conditions undermines the success of accountability; the researchers comment, "Unless policies and programs are made more reasonable for newly arrived ELLs, many of them will likely be left behind" (p. 19).

Teachers also decry the instructional time—and language-learning opportunities—that are lost to preparing English learners for standardized tests. Phipps (2010) commented, "Learning a language takes time and preparing for a test is definitely not learning a language" (p. 19). However, the chief criticism of NCLB in regard to culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students was the pressure it placed on schools with high numbers of English learners: lower baseline achievement scores required greater gains. And when schools who cannot achieve great gains undergo "high-stakes" consequences—with threats to close the schools suffering

from low test scores—too often blame falls on the presence of English learners and resentment soon follows. One can only hope that the replacement for NCLB—ESSA—will indeed be more flexible in dealing with English-learner populations.

Standards for English-Language Development

The aim of standardized measures is to ensure that all students are held to the same level of performance. Yet the net result is often to penalize schools whose English learners do not score well on tests designed for native-English speakers. This poses a dilemma: On the one hand, high standards across schools do not permit school districts to lower academic standards for schools with high percentages of English learners. On the other hand, forcing students to undergo frustrating experiences of repeated testing in English when they are not ready can discourage them. Alternatively, testing students in their primary language is not effective if schools do not offer primary-language instruction. The issue of standards is particularly acute when statistics show the increasing segregation of English learners in public schools. High standards are an attempt to insure a quality education across all schools.

Many states have adopted standards to guide the process of teaching English to second-language learners. Texas adopted English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) in 2007 (ipsi.utexas.edu/EST/files/standards/ELPS/ELPS.pdf). In Florida, the Reading/Language Arts Standards with English Language Proficiency Standards in 2007 became part of the Sunshine State Standards, now called the Next Generation Sunshine State Standards (NGSSS). In New York, the *Teaching of Language Arts to Limited English Proficient/English Language Learners: Learning Standards for English as a Second Language* document (www.highered.nysed.gov/kiap/precoll/service_learn/standards/esl.pdf) serves as the foundation for English as a second language (ESL) curriculum, instruction, and assessment in prekindergarten through twelfth grade. In California, The *California English Language Development Standards: Kindergarten Through Grade 12* document was adopted in 2014, designed to work hand in hand with the mainstream English language arts (ELA) standards (<https://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/el/er/documents/eldstndpublication14.pdf>).

ELD standards provide teachers with consistent measures of English learners' progress and ensure that English learners can eventually, like English-speaking students, meet and exceed standards for English language arts content. Access to high-quality instruction is accomplished by aligning assessment with instruction so that each student can be taught at the appropriate level. Teachers assess, plan, teach appropriately, and reassess to keep students moving forward. Thus, assessment takes into consideration both ELD skills and content area knowledge.

ELD takes place in stages; these stages are represented as second-language-acquisition levels, which are described slightly differently in various states' standards. As for domains of proficiency, the California ELD standards, like the mainstream ELA standards, describe expected proficiency on the part of the English learner in each of six key domains of language (listening and speaking, reading/word analysis, reading fluency and systematic vocabulary development, reading comprehension, reading literary response and analysis, and writing strategies and application).

For example, in the domain of listening and speaking, expected English proficiency increases gradually from beginning to advanced levels. Table 8.1 depicts the expectations for each of the five levels.

WIDA Standards and Proficiency Assessments The World-class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) was begun in 2002 in response to the 2001 NCLB, which mandated that English learners be assessed regularly in language proficiency. The consortium originally

TABLE 8.1 Listening and Speaking Expectations in the California English Language Development Standards for English Learners at Five Levels

ELD Level	Expectations
Beginning (K–2)	<p>Begins to speak with a few words or sentences, employing some English phonemes and rudimentary English grammatical phrases.</p> <p>Answers simple questions with one- or two-word responses.</p> <p>Responds to simple directions and questions with physical actions and other means of nonverbal communication.</p> <p>Independently uses common social greetings and simple repetitive phrases.</p>
Early Intermediate	<p>Begins to be understood when speaking, but may have some inconsistent use of Standard English grammatical forms and sounds.</p> <p>Asks/answers questions with phrases or simple sentences.</p> <p>Retells familiar stories and short conversations by using appropriate gestures, expressions, and illustrative objects.</p> <p>Orally communicates basic needs.</p> <p>Recites familiar rhymes, songs, and simple stories.</p>
Intermediate	<p>Asks/answers instructional questions with simple sentences.</p> <p>Listens attentively to stories/information and identifies key details and concepts using both verbal and nonverbal responses.</p> <p>Can be understood when speaking, employing consistent Standard English forms and sounds; however, some rules may not be in evidence.</p> <p>Actively participates in social conversations with peers and adults on familiar topics by asking and answering questions and soliciting information.</p> <p>Retells stories and talks about school-related activities using expanded vocabulary, descriptive words, and paraphrasing.</p>
Early Advanced	<p>Listens attentively to stories/information and orally identifies key details and concepts.</p> <p>Retells stories in greater detail, including characters, setting, and plot.</p> <p>Is understood when speaking, using consistent Standard English forms, sounds, intonation, pitch, and modulation, but may have random errors.</p> <p>Actively participates and initiates more extended social conversations with peers and adults on unfamiliar topics by asking and answering questions, restating, and soliciting information.</p> <p>Recognizes appropriate ways of speaking that vary based on purpose, audience, and subject matter.</p> <p>Asks and answers instructional questions with more extensive supporting elements.</p>
Advanced	<p>Listens attentively to stories/information on new topics and identifies both orally and in writing key details and concepts.</p> <p>Demonstrates understanding of idiomatic expressions by responding to and using them appropriately.</p> <p>Negotiates/initiates social conversations by questioning, restating, soliciting information, and paraphrasing.</p> <p>Consistently employs appropriate ways of speaking and writing that vary based on purpose, audience, and subject matter.</p> <p>Narrates and paraphrases events in greater detail, using more extended vocabulary.</p>

Source: Adapted from the California English Language Development Standards. Retrieved from <https://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/el/er/eldstandards.asp>

Standardized tests are increasingly used to measure educational outcomes.



Ariel Skelley/DigitalVision/Getty Images

provided language assessment for the states of Wisconsin, Delaware, and Arkansas, in partnership with the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL). (The current consortium, having moved beyond its original mission, simply uses the term WIDA.) As of 2018, thirty-nine U.S. state education agencies belong to the WIDA consortium, along with the U.S. Virgin Islands; these states use both the ELD standards and the accompanying proficiency assessment, Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State-to-State (ACCESS).

Many other schools nationally and internationally have adopted WIDA resources for use in their ELD programs. In 2011, the University of Oklahoma E-TEAM published the WIDA ELP Standards to Common Core State Standards (CCSS) alignment report, giving states that used WIDA the opportunity to adopt the use of CCSS alongside WIDA. Puerto Rico has adopted the WIDA Spanish Language Development Standards.

Boosting WIDA's popularity with educators is the availability of professional development workshops and professional certification for trainers, providing school districts with nationally standardized preparation for administering English-language proficiency tests and interpreting the results. WIDA has now aligned the proficiency testing with language functions, giving educators easy-to-implement language examples keyed to classroom use.

Advantages of Standards-Based Instruction for English Learners An advantage of establishing content and performance standards for English learners is that teachers can use these standards to focus on what students need to know. Rather than following the traditional ELD emphasis on sentence structure, grammar, and the learning of discrete vocabulary terms, teachers can pursue an articulated sequence of instruction, integrating the teaching of English into increasingly sophisticated levels of language and meaningful discourse, fluent communication

skills, and cognitive academic language proficiency. This is particularly important under the Common Core standards, which encourage high-level critical thinking and discussion skills.

The application of standards avoids what has been too-frequent practice in the past: the use in ELD of materials and practices designed for younger students or for special education students. Gándara (1997) reported vast discrepancies between the curricula offered to English speakers and to English learners. The requirements of standards can alter this practice. A standard becomes useful to teachers when they can identify if the standard has been met or progress is being made toward meeting it. Moreover, students can use these standards to evaluate their own performances.

Disadvantages of Standards-Based Instruction for English Learners Although the overall goal of standards-based education is noble—devising a set of very broad standards for all students and measuring success according to a common set of criteria—the ongoing needs of English learners require that school districts remain flexible about the specific means for addressing standards and determining student achievement. The heavy emphasis on high-stakes testing places English learners at risk of failure.

In fact, schools across the United States report low test scores for students who are linguistically “nonmainstream.” The emphasis on testing leaves little time for teachers to focus on teaching the academic subjects and the language that English learners need to acquire to perform well on high-stakes tests.

The answer to this dilemma is for school districts to invest in high-level, late-exit primary-language instruction and to allow students to be tested in their primary language. If English learners are expected to be able quickly to attain grade-level performance standards in English reading that are set for native English speakers, they may be pressured toward submersion or early exit transition bilingual education programs as a preferred model. This precludes the possibility that they will develop biliteracy in their native language.

If testing has become an index used to compare schools competitively, wisdom suggests that high-quality education requires more than high standards. It also requires a high level of resources to accomplish such mandates. In a sense, the whole community must invest in the learning that takes place in a classroom, for the whole community suffers if the learning impetus of the young is misdirected, quashed, or squandered.

Role, Purposes, and Types of Assessment

What are the components of the assessment picture for English learners? Some assessments used with English learners are required by government programs and legal mandates, and others are a part of standard classroom practice. Ideally, assessment provides information about students’ abilities that teachers can use to advance their academic and personal development.

State-Adopted Tests under Federal Testing Mandates

Federal law under the ESSA requires states to establish English language proficiency (ELP) content standards and to use a single ELP test to assess students’ progress in and mastery of these standards in four domains: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Results from the annual administration of ELP tests are used to report on students’ progress in and attainment of ELP. However, this mandate has raised a host of concerns: What measures of English proficiency should be used? What common, statewide entrance and exit procedures should be

used for English-learner services that are required by this law? What minimum number of English learners should there be in a school for the school to be required to “count” this group? What must a school do if its English learners are not showing measurable progress?

State-Adopted Tests for English-Language Proficiency States have addressed the issue of required testing in various ways. Matched to the California English Language Development Standards, the California English Language Development Test (CELDT) is used to identify new students who are English learners in grades K–12, determine their proficiency, and annually assess their progress in English skills. It is required to be given within thirty days of enrollment, and is also administered yearly by school-site specialists, either the ELD teacher, an aide, or a program coordinator. The CELDT meets the federal mandate that a state receiving federal funds define annual measurable achievement objectives (AMAOs) for monitoring the progress of English learners toward attaining proficiency in English. Texas uses the Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS) as an assessment program for English learners, and New York uses the New York State ESL Achievement Test (NYSESLAT), which is administered annually to all English learners in New York. Table 8.2 summarizes state requirements across a subset of U.S. states.

Identification, Placement, Instruction, Progress Tracking, and Redesignation/Reclassification of English Learners

English learners move through standards-based education in a systematic way. First, procedures are in place in each school district for identifying English learners as they enroll in school. Placement assessment determines the appropriate level of instruction, and, using this placement level as a guideline, teachers design instructional activities and monitor students’ progress until they can be reclassified—considered ready to participate in mainstream instruction.

Equitable Access to the Language Arts Curriculum California, for example, has its own set of education standards. In the area of English language arts, the English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools: Kindergarten through Grade 12 was adopted by the state Board of Education in 2014, with the intent that the ELD standards support the ELA standards in two ways: They are aligned with the ELA standards by using similar terminology and categories, and they prepare English learners to advance to a level at which the ELA standards can be used to guide their learning.

The California ELA/ELD standards are built upon five guiding principles that together describe their core ideas: that schooling should help all students to achieve their highest potential; that the responsibility for learners’ literacy and language development is shared across all involved educators, family members and communities; that ELA/literacy and ELD curricula should be well designed, comprehensive, and integrated; that effective teaching is essential to student success; and that motivation and engagement play crucial roles in learning. Together, these principles must be in place in the schools to ensure that English learners can make adequate yearly progress to meet the standards outlined for mainstream English language arts, and thus are assured access to the mainstream curriculum.

Identifying the English Learner Various methods are used to identify English learners needing services. *Registration* and *enrollment* information collected from incoming students can help identify those with a home language other than English. A teacher or tutor who has informally observed a student using a language other than English often does identification

TABLE 8.2 Language Proficiency Tests in Selected U.S. States and Territories (as of 2009–2010)

State	Test	Comments
Alabama, Delaware, District of Columbia, Illinois, Kentucky, Maine, Mississippi, Missouri, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, N. Carolina, N. Dakota, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, S. Dakota, Vermont, Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming	Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State-to-State for English Language Learners 2.0 (ACCESS for ELLs 2.0)	ACCESS for ELLs 2.0 is a large-scale test of English language proficiency based on the WIDA English Language Development (ELD) Standards.
Arkansas, Iowa, Louisiana, Nebraska	English Language Development Assessment (ELDA)	
Ohio	Ohio Test of Language Acquisition (OTELA)	Modified version of ELDA.
W. Virginia	West Virginia Test for English Language Learners (WESTELL)	ELDA renamed.
Florida	Comprehensive English Language Learning Assessment (CELLA)	
Arizona	Arizona English Language Learner Assessment (AZELLA)	Customized version of the Stanford English Language Proficiency Test (SELP).
New York	New York State English as a Second Language Achievement Test (NYSESLAT)	Items initially drawn from SELP item bank.
Connecticut, Indiana, Maryland	Language Assessment Scales Links (LAS Links)	
Colorado	Colorado English Language Assessment (CELA)	Customized version of Language Assessment Scales Links (LAS Links).
California	California English Language Development Test (CELDT)	
Texas	Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS)	
Tennessee	Tennessee English Language Placement Assessment (TELPA)	
Alaska	Idea Proficiency Test (IPT)	
Oregon	Oregon English Language Proficiency Assessment (OR-ELPA)	
Massachusetts	Massachusetts English Proficiency Assessment-Reading and Writing (MEPA-R/W) and Massachusetts English Language Assessment-Oral (MELA-O)	

Source: <http://www.ncela.org>

through observation. Interviews may also provide opportunities to identify students, as may *referrals* made by teachers, counselors, parents, administrators, or community members.

The *home language survey*, a short form administered by school districts to determine the language spoken at home, is a common method of identifying students whose primary language is not English. One difficulty with the home language survey is its dependence on self-report. Some parents simply indicate that the home language is English, a misdirection that usually stems from the desire that the student receive English-only instruction. The resulting submersion in English-only instruction is difficult for both the learner and the teacher, but placement is the parents' decision.

Assessment for Placement Once students are identified, their level of English proficiency needs to be determined. School districts are required by state and federal mandates to administer a placement test before assigning a new student to an instructional program if a home language survey indicates that the student's primary language is not English. The assessment should be done by staff members with the language skills to communicate in the family's native language. Parents and students should be provided with orientation about the assessment and placement process and the expectations and services of the school system. Most important, the school staff needs to be trained in, aware of, and sensitive to the cultural backgrounds and linguistic needs of the student population.

Various states in the United States use a mixture of measures to evaluate students for ELD services, including the following: oral proficiency tests, teacher judgment, parent request, literacy tests in English, prior instructional services, writing samples in English, achievement tests in English, teacher ratings of English proficiency, oral proficiency tests in the native language, and achievement tests in the native language (Zehler, Fleischman, Hopstock, Pendzick, & Stephenson, 2003). Some districts augment testing with informal language assessment.

BEST PRACTICE Informal Assessment of Students' Language Abilities

- Observe students in multiple settings, such as classroom, home, and playground.
- With the help of a trained interpreter if necessary, obtain histories (medical, family, previous education, immigration experience, home languages).
- Interview current or previous classroom teachers for information about a student's learning style and classroom behavior.
- Seek information from other school personnel (e.g., counselor, nurse), especially if they are capable of assessing the home language.
- Ask the student's parents to characterize the student's language and performance skills in the home and the community. (Cheng, 1987)

Educators who draw from a variety of information sources can see the students' needs in a broader context and thus design a language program to meet these needs. Teacher-devised checklists and observational data gathered as students participate in learning activities can be used to confirm or adjust student placement.

Assessment-Based Instruction Teaching methods that ensure differentiated standards-based instruction for English learners should take into account the range of English proficiency

levels represented in the classroom, using multiple means to measure and document the progress of learners. The previous tests report scores that place English learners at proficiency levels: for example, in California, Beginning, Early Intermediate, Intermediate, Early Advanced, and Advanced; in Texas, Beginning, Intermediate, Advanced, and Advanced High; and in WIDA's terms, Entering, Emerging, Developing, Expanding, and Bridging.

English learners' achievement in English is made possible by a linkage between standards, placement testing, instruction, and careful record keeping. Placement tests that are directly linked to standards-based classroom instruction for English learners permit teachers to begin using targeted instructional practices as soon as students enter the classroom and provide a seamless system that helps teachers track students' continuous progress toward mainstream instruction. Each linkage—from standards to assessment to instruction and back to assessment—is explained in the following sections.

Ideally, each content lesson in which the student participates has not only a content objective, derived from the relevant content standard, but also a language objective designed to meet one of the ELD standards still to be achieved. The ELD standard is based on the students' assessed level(s); that is, if a group of students has placed in the early intermediate level on a placement proficiency test in reading, the reading objective(s) is drawn from the intermediate level, the level still to be attained. In addition, to promote cognitive academic language proficiency, each lesson should have a learning-strategy objective (further described in Chapter 5).

One might think that moving from assessment to objective is reverse thinking—indeed, Wiggins and McTighe (1998) call it “backwards” lesson planning—but if the goal is to demonstrate progress in English acquisition, one must first determine what ELD standard a student needs to meet and pair that standard with some assessment that would provide the required evidence that the student has met the standard. Thus, assessment is the flip side of setting objectives—one cannot exist without the other. Thus the process of lesson planning consists of the following:

- Aligning curriculum (both teacher-created and textbook assignments) with grade-level standards and students' assessed level(s) (also called *curriculum calibration*);
- Setting objectives that state the lesson goals in measurable terms;
- Designing instructional activities whose results provide evidence that the objectives have been attained and students have mastered the required standards; and
- Using grade-level formative (in-process) and summative (final) assessments to monitor and evaluate student achievement.

BEST PRACTICE “Backwards” Planning

Sheni Chen plans a lesson for sixth-grade students at the intermediate and advanced ELD levels. She plans to address two literacy response and analysis (reading) standards from the California ELD standards: (Intermediate) “Read text and use detailed sentences to respond orally to factual questions about brief prose” and (Advanced) “Read a literary selection and orally explain the literary elements of plot, setting, and characters by using detailed sentences.” Three objectives result:

1. (Intermediate) Students will work in groups to use complete sentences to make charts displaying a sequence chain of ten events in the story “Something to Declare” by Julia Alvarez.

2. (Advanced) Students will work in groups, using complete sentences to fill out plot/setting/character matrix charts about the story "Something to Declare."
3. (Intermediate and Advanced) Students will use their charts to play a quiz game with other groups at their level. If they have an incorrect entry, peers will correct them.

Formative Assessment: The teacher will circulate to help the groups plan and complete their charts.

Summative Assessment: Students will receive one point for each correct entry on their charts.

In previous chapters, lesson plans and teaching strategies were presented that differentiate between English learners at various levels of proficiency. Because classrooms invariably include students from more than one level, each lesson plan must include participation for students whose scores represent more than one ELD level. This is the challenge of differentiated instruction.

Differentiating Instruction to Meet Standards In designing universal access to the language arts curriculum, Kame'enui and Simmons (2000) proposed that teachers treat students as members of one of three distinct groups: a benchmark group, a strategic group, or an intensive group. Interventions are tailored to the needs of these groups (see Table 8.3).

When interpreting this grouping, it is important to note that the process of acquiring English should not be considered a disability. Just because a student is at the early stage of learning English does not mean that student is in need of intensive intervention. Learning a second language is a social and cognitive achievement that requires time. However, if a student has made no significant progress over a period of four or five months, a referral for a speech/language evaluation may be in order. In bilingual populations, the incidence of special education needs is normally distributed in the same proportion as in the mainstream population.

TABLE 8.3 Interventions Tailored to Three Need-Based Groups

Group	Characteristics	Interventions
Benchmark	May be experiencing minor difficulties.	Reteach concepts. Provide additional learning time. Offer support, such as a reading tutor. Use SDAIE techniques.
Strategic	Test results show 1–2 standard deviations below the mean.	Provide specific additional assignments to be done with supervision. Schedule extended language arts time. Use SDAIE techniques; modify curriculum. May be referred to school Student Success Team for intervention strategies; may require a 504 plan for targeted interventions.
Intensive	Extremely and chronically low performance in one or more measures.	Refer to Student Success Team for evaluation. Special education placement may entail additional resources or instructional support. Student, if placed in special education, will be given an individualized education program (IEP).

Source: California Department of Education, *Reading/Language Arts Framework* (2007), pp. 264–265.

Note: The 2007 standards have been replaced by the 2014 version. However, the chart above still pertains to Response To Intervention (RTI) grouping.

Gregory (2003) offered strategies for differentiating instruction, particularly in response to standards mandates. Strategies address a range of aspects from learning styles to classroom management.

Progress Tracking In many school districts, each English learner has a progress file in which the yearly proficiency score is recorded. The speaking/listening, reading, and writing standards are listed in the folder, with boxes to check when the student meets each standard. This file also contains writing samples as evidence that the writing standards have been met. This folder travels with the student class by class, providing evidence about which standards are yet to be met and serving as the step-by-step proof that the English learner is making progress toward transition to the reading/language arts standards for the mainstream learner.

Redesignation/Reclassification/Exit When English learners score a certain level on the proficiency test, among other criteria, they are considered ready to participate with English-speaking students in the mainstream classroom. The process for redesignation varies across districts and states. Some districts organize bilingual education advisory committees to ensure parent representation and participation in implementing redesignation criteria that are reliable, valid, and useful. Some states set score targets on language and achievement tests that are used as criteria for proficiency, but in other states the individual districts set their own reclassification criteria. The reclassification process may use all of some of these four criteria:

- Second-language-proficiency test score;
- Teacher evaluation of a student's academic performance, based on report card grades, grade point average, or another measure used by the school district;
- Consultation with parent or guardian; and
- Performance in basic skills, as measured by a state-adopted standardized achievement test.

BEST PRACTICE Testing Proficiency for Purposes of Reclassification

Texas allows school districts to use a variety of assessments in addition to TELPAS to evaluate an English learner's oral skills when seeking to reclassify the student (see the following). A similar set of testing options exists for writing proficiency tests in English.

- IDEA Proficiency Test—IPT I, IPT I Online, IPT II, IPT II Online
- Language Assessment System (LAS Links, LAS Links Online, Forms A, B, C, D)
- Stanford English Language Proficiency Test (2nd Ed.) (SELP 2)
- Test of English Language Learning (TELL)
- Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey-Revised and Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey III

Issues of Fairness in Testing English Learners

Tests play a significant role in placing and reclassifying English learners. However, standardized tests are not necessarily well suited as measures of language ability or achievement for English learners. In fact, some have argued that the very use of tests is unfair because they are used to deprive people of color of their place in society. The goal of tests notwithstanding, both the testing situation and the test content may be rife with difficulties for and bias against English learners.

One might ask just how fair it is to test an English learner whose proficiency is at the earliest levels using assessments that are designed for native-English speakers. Factors within the context of testing such as anxiety, lack of experience with testing materials, time limitations, and rapport with the test administrator may also cause difficulties.

Test Anxiety All students experience test anxiety, but this anxiety can be compounded if the test is alien to the students' cultural background and experiences. Certain test formats such as multiple choice and think-aloud tasks may provoke higher levels of anxiety because students may fear that these assessments inaccurately reflect their true proficiency in English.

Time Limitations Students may need more time to answer individual questions because of the time needed for mental translation and response formulation. Students from other cultures do not necessarily operate under the same conception of time as do European Americans. Some students may need a time extension or should be given untimed tests.

Problematic Test Content For the most part, language placement tests are well suited for assessing language. Other tests, however, particularly achievement tests, may contain translation problems or bias that affects the performance of English learners. Translating an English-language achievement test into another language, or vice versa, to create equivalent vocabulary items may cause some lack of correspondence in the frequency of the items.

Geographic bias might occur when test items feature terms used in particular geographic regions that are not universally shared. *Dialectical bias* occurs when a student is tested using expressions relevant to certain dialect speakers that are not known to others. *Language-specific bias* is created when a test developed for one language is given in another language. *Cultural bias* may occur if the test represents content from the dominant culture that may be understood differently or not at all by English learners. Common European American food items such as bacon, musical instruments such as a banjo, even nursery rhymes and children's stories may be unfamiliar. Test content may represent a *class bias*; for example, the term *shallots* appeared on a nationally administered standardized achievement test, but only students whose families consume gourmet foods were likely to be familiar with the term.

Validity A test is *valid* if it measures what it claims to be measuring. A test has *content validity* if it samples the content that it claims to test in some representative way. For example, if a reading curriculum includes training in reading for the main idea, then a test of that curriculum would include a test item about reading for the main idea. *Empirical validity* is a measure of how effectively a test relates to some other known measure, such as subsequent success or performance.

Reliability A test is *reliable* if it yields predictably similar scores when it is taken again. Although many variables can affect a student's test score—such as error introduced by fatigue, hunger, or poor lighting—test results should be consistent regardless of the examiner, time, place, or other variables related to test administration.

Practicality A test may be valid and reliable but cost too much to administer either in time or money. A highly usable test should be relatively straightforward to administer and score. For example, if a portfolio is kept to document student progress, issues of practicality would require that the portfolio be simple to maintain, accessible to students, and easily scored with a rubric agreed on by teachers and students.

BEST PRACTICE Checklist for Testing English Learners

The following checklist can be used to monitor testing practices for English learners:

- Does the assessment of what has been learned closely match what has been taught? The test content should reflect the curriculum, with the same type of material being tested as was presented during instruction, with the same language and student interaction.
- Do the conditions for assessment resemble that of instruction? The use of similar conditions helps students access and remember what they have learned.
- Does the assessment build on the experiences of students? Is it relevant to their lives, and can it be matched to their developmental level?
- Is the atmosphere positive, and free of distractions?

Types of Classroom Assessments for English Learners

Assessment instruments can be used for a number of purposes: to make determinations about student placement, to make day-to-day instructional adjustments such as when to provide a student with additional mediation, to make resource decisions such as allocation of instructional time or materials, and to measure student achievement against standards. Teachers who apply assessment skillfully can choose which methods of assessment are most useful for classroom decision making; develop effective grading procedures; communicate assessment results to students, parents, and other educators; and recognize unethical, illegal, and otherwise inappropriate assessment methods and uses of assessment information (Ward & Murray-Ward, 1999).

Formative and *summative assessments* serve different purposes. Assessment that takes place during instruction is formative; it helps teachers to determine “what and how students are learning, so instruction can be modified while it is still in progress” (Herrera, Murry, & Cabral, 2007, p. 174). This assessment ranges from informal verbal feedback, such as questioning students about their progress or using an informal observation instrument, to more formal instruments such as preliminary scoring with a rubric that will be used again to assess a final score. In contrast, summative assessment occurs at the end point and provides a basis for a letter grade.

Self-assessment and *peer assessment* allow students to rate themselves and one another formatively, preferably using rubrics, providing them additional opportunities to apply grading criteria to their work and discuss it with others, while using their metacognitive skills to plan, monitor, and evaluate their efforts. Herrera and colleagues (2007, p. 33) offered an “Effort and Achievement Comparison Rubric” that students can use to rate themselves with a 5-point scale on how effectively they confront the learning challenges they face. This is an excellent tool to teach time and task management.

Test Types Various types of tests are used for different purposes. Each has its objectives, features, and limitations.

Textbook tests are provided by the textbook publisher and designed to correlate with text content. On the plus side, such tests provide a direct measure of what was presented in the text. Another positive feature is the fact that such a text is probably state adopted because of its match with state standards (Linn, 2000). This makes it easier to compare one class with another. One limitation may be the lack of relevance of this content to the student or the culture of the community.

Performance-based tests involve “the actual doing of a task” (Linn & Miller, 2005, p. 7), using a product or a performance as an outcome measure. By communicating performance standards to students, schools provide expectations for their work. Outcome-based performance assessment is designed to offer information about students’ proficiency, including the ability to analyze and apply, rather than simply recognize or recall information. Performance-based testing procedures can be based on tasks that students are asked to do, including essays, demonstrations, computer simulations, performance events, and open-ended problem solving.

BEST PRACTICE Performance Assessment

An ideal performance test for reading would meet the following criteria:

- Contain materials similar to that found in real books rather than reproduced paragraphs written with a controlled vocabulary;
- Be administered by a concerned adult who is usually present to help (the teacher or classroom parent volunteer);
- Be observational and interactional, but also valid and reliable, and available for comparison and reporting purposes;
- Offer a picture of the student’s reading strengths and weaknesses; and
- Be motivating and fun, so that students, by taking it, would be encouraged to read more.

Source: Based on Bembridge, 1992

A positive aspect of performance-based assessment is the targeted feedback that encourages students to compare their work with specific standards. In this way, assessment can provide information about which aspects of instruction need to be redesigned so that both student and teacher performance improves.

Curriculum tasks measure the success of activities performed in class. An advantage is that an add-on assessment is not necessary; the class activities themselves can be scored and graded. A limitation is that when students have been given extensive help to complete tasks using formative assessment, it is difficult to assess the skill level they have attained independently of help.

Authentic tests measure proficiency on a task commonly found outside the classroom. Examples of authentic assessment include the use of portfolios, projects, experiments, current event debates, and community-based inquiries. Assessments are considered authentic if they stem directly from classroom activities, allow students to share in the process of evaluating their progress, and are valid and reliable in that they truly assess a student’s classroom performance in a stable manner (O’Malley & Pierce, 1996).

The advantage of authentic assessment is its direct relation to classroom performance, permitting teachers to design and offer the extra mediation students may need as determined by the assessment. Such real-world relevance is useful to students in the long run, so young people can feel their education is beneficial to themselves and their community.

Teacher-made tests are often used to determine report card grades. They may contain features of performance-based or other kinds of testing, the distinction being that they are teacher-created. Teacher-made language tests can assess skills in reading comprehension, oral fluency, grammatical accuracy, writing proficiency, and listening. Teacher-constructed tests may not be as reliable and valid as tests that have been standardized, but the ease of construction and administration and the relevance to classroom learning make them popular.

Assessments That Supplement Tests *Portfolio assessments* can be used to maintain a long-term record of students' progress, to provide a clear and understandable measure of student productivity instead of a single number, to offer opportunities for improved student self-image as a result of showing progress and accomplishment, and to allow an active role for students in self-assessment (Gottlieb, 1995). Portfolios can include writing samples (compositions, letters, reports); student self-assessments; audio recordings (retellings, oral think-alouds); photographs and video recordings; semantic webs and concept maps; and teacher notes about students.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Using Portfolio Assessment

Eric Daum listens to each of his students in the third grade read individually, using a running record to evaluate each student's reading level. Periodically, he sets up individual "chat" times to learn about students' interests. The class archives assignments in student portfolios on a regular basis, involved actively in selecting work for their portfolios.

By the time of parent conferences, student literacy portfolios contain a list of goals set and accomplished; writing samples; records of books the student has read; a complete writing project including prewriting, drafts, and final published copy; a self-summary of the student's progress; anecdotes and remembrances written by students, and photos that the teacher has taken. In preparation for the conference, Mr. Daum tells the students, "Write a one-page note to your parents explaining which is your favorite work in the portfolio—why you are proud of that piece of work, and what you learned from doing it."

Observation-based assessment is used by a teacher to make notes of students' learning behavior as they interact and communicate using language. Observations can be formal (e.g., miscue analyses) or informal (such as anecdotal reports to record students' telling a story, giving a report, or using oral language in other ways). Observations should extend across all areas of the curriculum and in all types of interactional situations to show students' progress. An observation checklist allows the teacher to circulate among students while they are working and monitor specific skills, such as emergent literacy skills, word identification skills, and oral reading.

BEST PRACTICE Anecdotal Observations

Mrs. Feingold keeps a pad of 3" × 3" sticky notes in the pocket of her jacket. When she observes a student's particular use of language (in the first or second language) or other noteworthy behavior, she jots the information on a note, including the student's name, date, and time of day. She then transfers this note to a small notebook for safekeeping. Periodically, she files the notes by transferring them to a sheet of paper in each student's file. Just before parent conferences, she duplicates this page—which contains as many as twelve notes side by side—as a permanent observational record of the student's language behaviors.

Questionnaires and surveys can help teachers learn about many students' skills and interests at once. These can be given at intervals throughout the year and stored in a student's portfolio.

Scoring rubrics created by teachers or obtained commercially can be determined in advance of an assignment, assisting both teacher and student by communicating in advance the basis for scoring. A rubric that provides clear criteria for scoring student work increases the consistency of assessment. It clarifies the expectations for the assignment so that students can focus on what is important; a family member who helps on an assignment can also see clearly what is expected. Using the rubric, students can monitor and critique their own work, adding to a sense of ownership of the knowledge they gain (Airasian, 2005). Rubistar is a free online resource that teachers can use to create rubrics (www.rubistar.com).

BEST PRACTICE Developing a Scoring Rubric

Rubrics are straightforward to develop.

1. First, the teacher identifies desired results. What should students *know* and *be able to do* at the end of the lesson/unit?
2. Then the teacher determines what is considered to be acceptable evidence: What performance (task) will the students do?
3. Finally, the connection to grading is set. What are the criteria for judging—the point values connected to each aspect of the work?
4. If time permits, examples of excellent, acceptable, and poor work help students visualize the grading criteria.
5. The use of a rubric encourages students to check their work against the criteria in a formative way before final grading. This enables “transparent” assessment, which keeps students informed of their progress.

Checking for Comprehension How does the teacher assess who understands instruction? One part of formative, or in-process, assessment is the use of teacher questions to check an English learner’s comprehension. Depending on the listening skills of the learner, the teacher must ask questions differently for differentiated levels of English proficiency.

At the beginning level, a learner can be asked questions that require a nonverbal answer, or a simple yes/no response: “Is this the Atlantic Ocean?” (pointing to a map). At the early intermediate level, a student can be asked a question requiring a one- or two-word response, or a simple phrase: “Is this the Atlantic or the Pacific Ocean?” At the intermediate level, students can answer in a sentence. “What happened when Columbus first landed?” At the early advanced and advanced levels, the teacher can follow up a single question with another to clarify the students’ response or to ask for additional information. Thus, questions are tailored to the student’s listening and speaking skills.

Selecting and Using Appropriate Classroom Assessments

How does a teacher know what, when, and how to test English learners? Tests must be aligned with district curriculum requirements so that test results measure student progress on preselected benchmarks.

Empirical teaching is the foundation for providing additional mediation when necessary to promote the achievement of English learners. Using a variety of assessments, the teacher

ascertains the factors that contribute to a student's success or difficulties and then designs teaching methods linked to students' needs.

Assigning Grades to English Learners

Grading and assessment issues concern teachers of all students, but teachers of English learners face additional challenges. English learners' limited English affects their ability to communicate their content knowledge. Should there be two standards of achievement, one for English learners and one for native-English speakers? Teachers and English learners may have different expectations and interpretations of the grade. Answers to these issues are not easy. But by working collaboratively with other teachers in the school, an overall schoolwide plan can be developed.

A variety of approaches have been used to assign grades to English learners. Some schools that assign a *traditional A to F grade scale* in accordance with grade-level expectations do not lower performance standards for English learners in sheltered classes, although assignments are adjusted to meet the students' language levels. A *modified A to F grade scale* is used to assess students' work with an A to F grade based on achievement, effort, and behavior, and with report card grades modified by a qualifier signifying work performed above, at, or below grade level. A third type of grading system is the *pass/fail grade scale* used by schools whose English learners are integrated into the regular classroom. This scale avoids comparing the English learners with English-proficient classmates.

Some schools have begun to assign a numerical grade according to a student's knowledge of state standards. For example, in second grade, if a child is required to "read fluently and accurately and with appropriate intonation and expression," the number grade reflects the mastery of this standard. Such ancillary factors as attendance and class participation do not influence this grade.

BEST PRACTICE A Grading and Assessment Plan

- Ensure that the school or school district has a fair policy for grading English learners that everyone follows.
- Grade a combination of *process* and *product* for all students.
- Early in the class, explain to students what and how you grade. Show examples of good, intermediate, and poor work.
- Use rubrics.
- Involve students in developing criteria for evaluating assignments and help them use these criteria to evaluate their own work.
- Use a variety of products to assess (some less dependent on fluent language skills, such as art projects, dramatizations, portfolios, and graphic organizers).
- Adapt tests and test administration (allow more time for English learners; read the test aloud).
- Teach test-taking skills and strategies.
- Grade beginning English learners as satisfactory/unsatisfactory or at/above/below expectations until the end of the year. Then assign a letter grade for the year.
- Put a note on the report card or transcript to identify the student as an English learner. Write comments to clarify how the student was graded.

Source: Adapted from Grognet, Jameson, Franco, & Derrick-Mescua, 2000

Reporting Assessment Results to Parents

Teachers are expected to communicate the results of assessment to parents, whether with grades on a report card, through informal conferences (see Chapter 10), or by interpreting the results of standardized tests. Airasian (2005) advised teachers to start with general information about the test and its purpose when explaining standardized test scores. Describe the student's overall performance, with strengths and weaknesses; pick one or two areas (math and reading, for instance) and describe the percentile rank. To help the parent more fully understand the level of achievement, give the context of the student's general classroom performance. One does not need to explain everything on the test report; be brief, but accurate.

Test Accommodation

Under certain conditions, the testing situation can be accommodated for English learners. Extended time, large-print format, audio cassette recording, or changes in presentation format may provide English learners with access to the test content without compromising test security or integrity.

Test administrators are too often unclear about which accommodations to use, for whom, and under what conditions. Given the potential consequences of test results, Abedi, Hofstetter, and Lord (2004) caution against a one-size-fits-all approach. Empirical research is needed to determine what kinds of accommodations are effective.

Language and Content Area Assessment

Teachers with a flexible repertoire of assessment strategies can design instruction to provide a range of evidence that English learners are advancing in English proficiency and accessing the core curriculum. In an integrated lesson format, each lesson combines language-development objectives aligned with the ELD standards, subject matter objectives aligned with content standards, and learning-strategy objectives designed to teach cognitive academic language proficiency and thinking skills.

Combining Language and Content Standards and Learning-Strategy Objectives

Objectives are necessary to guide teaching. A lesson with a clear objective focuses the instruction by concentrating on a particular goal and guides the teacher to select those learning activities that accomplish the goal. Once objectives are clearly stated, the teacher selects material that will help students achieve those objectives.

Assessing Content Objectives Lessons for English learners need three types of objectives: content, language, and learning strategy. State agencies, district planners, and school officials have developed curricular maps matched to state standards for each content area. Each lesson contains content area objectives drawn from these standards, with assessment to match the objectives.

For example, in a second-grade science lesson, the objective might be to learn about balance in nature by sequencing the life cycle of the butterfly. This might be from a life science standard requiring students to learn about the predictable life cycles of plants and animals. The assessment would be designed to determine whether the students understood this concept.

Assessing Language-Development Objectives Each content area has specific language demands. The teacher considers the various tasks that language users must be able to perform in the different content areas (e.g., describing in a literature lesson, classifying in a science lesson, justifying in a mathematics lesson, etc.). In selecting the language objectives, the teacher reviews the target ELD levels of the students and selects objectives that are compatible with the language required in the content lesson. All four language modes (listening, speaking, reading, writing) should be included in the planning across the period of a week. Assessment for these would allow the teacher to “check off” these objectives for each student.

Assessing Learning-Strategy Objectives Learning strategies help students learn *how* to learn. Chamot (2009) divided strategies into three areas: cognitive, metacognitive, and social-affective. Each lesson should teach students a skill that helps them learn better. Whether or not they learn this skill should be assessed like any other objective.

English-Language-Development Assessments

Various types of informal and formal ELD assessments are used depending on the language skill involved. In the domain of reading instruction, for example, teachers employ a variety of assessment tools, including informal reading inventories, literacy skill checklists, running records, miscue analysis, guided observations, and portfolio assessment (Swartz et al., 2003). The goals of reading instruction, in general, are to expand word recognition, comprehension, and analytic skills.

The goals of writing are similar; vocabulary usage, organization of thought, and ability to master conventional usage in punctuation and grammar are paramount. To this end, assessments in writing balance three major areas: attention to sentence and paragraph structure and organization of ideas, originality and depth of thought, and mechanics.

Listening and speaking skills are the most difficult to assess because in the case of listening the skill is receptive and hard to measure. Often, however, a student’s listening affects classroom behavior directly, in that a student with underdeveloped listening skills may misunderstand oral directions and appear distracted or unresponsive. To assess speaking skills, teachers can plan specifically for oral interchange between students or between teacher and student, using simple rubrics to record performance in such areas as pronunciation, fluency, and intelligibility.

Interpreting the Results of Assessment

Using a three-level rubric, a teacher can scale a student’s performance on any objective, including the skills stipulated by the ELD standards. The student may achieve a secure proficiency in the skill and can move on, may need more guided or independent practice, or may be unable to perform the skill even with assistance. In the last case, it might be necessary to revisit the same skill at a lower level of the ELD framework; a student may need to be regrouped with others at a lower proficiency level until the preceding level of skill is secure and the student is ready to advance.

Need-Driven Classroom-Based Interventions Students who are not meeting the ELD standards may need individual interventions that can be performed in the regular classroom by the teacher. These include teaching the student with modified input, such as multimodalities (audio-recording a reading passage, using manipulatives, or increased primary-language

instruction). Other resources might be offered to the learner, such as a simplified text, additional review, study outlines, computer-assisted skill drills, or the services of an instructional aide. These interventions modify and differentiate instruction to address individual learning needs. More modifications are described in a later section about special education intervention.

Scaffolding Assessments Scaffolding means building a temporary structure to support instruction which is removed once learning takes place. Assessments are sometimes scaffolded to get students started or to help them focus on the desired outcome. At a physical level, this can mean supplying a map with the major rivers already drawn for a geography test or supplying a chart for x and y values on an algebraic graphing test. More commonly, test questions are scaffolded by underlining key terms, dividing a test question into subsections, or providing direct reference to prior knowledge. These are considered temporary aids, in that a student will not need such assistance every time.

Special Issues in Assessment

A variety of associated issues surrounds the education of English learners. Some pertain to the skills and abilities of the individual learner, whereas other issues have their origin in larger social or political factors. These include the placement of English learners in special education as well as issues of under- and overachievement in schools.

Academic and Learning Difficulties That English Learners May Experience

Because English learners and students with learning disabilities can experience similar difficulties, it may be a challenge to determine whether a learning impairment is due to the students' second-language-acquisition process or to an underlying learning disability that warrants a special education placement. Gopaul-McNicol and Thomas-Presswood (1998) noted the following possible factors that may cause English learners and culturally different students to resemble students with learning disabilities, possibly resulting in overreferral for special education.

Sound-Symbol Relationships If English learners' home language is nonalphabetic, they may have difficulty with alphabetic letters. If students are not literate in their primary language, they may have difficulty connecting sounds with symbols.

Receptive Language English learners at the beginner level may experience difficulty following directions and understanding complex language.

Metacognition English learners from a nonliterate background may lack literacy behaviors and strategies, such as predicting, planning, and self-monitoring while reading.

Information Retention The lack of cognates between the first and second language may hinder memory.

Motor Control Cultural differences and the lack of previous education can influence motor performance such as graphomotor (pencil) skills.

Social-Emotional Functioning English learners may experience academic frustration and low self-esteem. This may lead to self-defeating behaviors such as learned helplessness. Limited second-language skills may influence social skills, friendships, and teacher–student relationships.

Attending and Focusing English learners may exhibit behavior such as distractibility, short attention span, impulsivity, or high motor level (e.g., finger tapping, excessive talking, fidgeting, inability to remain seated). These may stem from cognitive overload when immersed in a second language for a long period of time.

Culture/Language Shock Students experiencing culture or language shock may show uneven performance, refuse to volunteer, fail to complete work, or seek constant attention and approval from the teacher. The emotional reactions to long-term acculturation stress may lead to withdrawal, anger, or a pervasive sense of sadness.

Identification, Referral, and Early Intervention of English Learners with Special Needs

Classroom teachers, along with parents and other school-site personnel, are responsible for identifying English learners with special instructional needs. When a classroom teacher initially identifies a student who may need additional mediation, a phase of intensive focus begins that may or may not result in a placement in special education. The classroom teacher's primary concern is to determine whether a student's academic or behavioral difficulties reflect factors other than disabilities, including inappropriate or inadequate instruction.

The Referral Process The school screen team, school-site assessment council, or otherwise-named entity is a school-site committee that bears responsibility for receiving and acting on an initial referral by the classroom teacher for a student who is in need of additional mediation in learning. The team reviews the classroom teacher's specific concerns about the student and makes suggestions for modifying the learning environment for the student within the regular classroom. This process of gathering data and implementing changes in the educational environment before testing is called the period of initial intervention.

How can the classroom teacher decide whether a student might have a disability requiring referral to special education? Friend and Bursuck (2011) offered these questions as a means to assist the decision-making process:

- What are specific examples of a student's needs that are as yet unmet in the regular classroom?
- Is there a chronic pattern that negatively affects learning? Or, conversely, does the difficulty follow no clear pattern?
- Is the student's unmet need becoming more serious as time passes?
- Is the student's functioning significantly different from that of classmates?

Early Intervention The classroom teacher implements strategies over a period of time and documents the effect these innovations have on the student. If a student is not responsive to alternative instructional or behavioral interventions over a period of several weeks or months, there is more of a chance that a placement in special education will be necessary (Ortiz, 2002). A key to the diagnosis of language-related disorders is the presence of similar patterns in both

the primary and the second languages. Poor oral language/vocabulary development and lack of comprehension in both languages often indicate learning disabilities.

In California, as in many states, to determine whether a student has a learning disability, educators must ascertain the presence of “a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes” that “is not the result of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage” (CA Regs, 56337[b]). Moreover, tests must be provided and administered in the primary language, by “someone who is competent in the oral and written skills of the individual’s primary language and who has a knowledge and understanding of the cultural and ethnic background of the pupil” (CA Regs 3023[a]). These and other guidelines help to ensure that testing is not biased against English learners, overreferring them to special education placement.

Continued Services during and after Placement Working directly with the student, the classroom teacher may tutor or test the child in the curricular material used in the classroom; chart daily measures of the child’s performance to see whether skills are being mastered; consult with other teachers on instructional interventions; devise tests based on the classroom curriculum; and train older peers, parent volunteers, and teacher aides to work with the student as tutors.

If the evaluation process results in the recommendation of special education services, the classroom teacher may help to write the student’s individual education program (IEP). Collaboration between the classroom teacher, special educators, parents, and the student is vital to the drafting and approval of an IEP that will result in academic success.

Teaching Strategies for the CLD Special Learner

Modified instruction can accommodate different instructional needs within the classroom and foster learning across academic content areas. *Inclusion* is a term often used to describe the provision of instruction within the conventional or mainstream classroom for students with special needs or talents. Although primarily associated with the education of exceptional students, this term has also been used for the varying degrees of inclusion of CLD learners in the mainstream classroom. For more specific information on inclusion, see the Florida State Department of Education website for *Inclusion Brief 6.5*.

The mainstream classroom of an included student is a rich, nonrestrictive setting for content instruction and language-development activities. The three components of an exemplary program for CLD learners—comprehensible instruction in the content areas using primary language and specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE), language arts instruction in English, and heritage (primary) language maintenance or development—are present.

The teacher makes every effort to help the student be dynamically a part of the class. Overall, teaching for inclusion features practices that showcase learners’ strong points and support the areas in which they may struggle. By using a variety of interactive strategies, teachers have ample opportunity to discover which methods and activities correspond to student success.

The task for the teacher becomes more complex as the increasingly varied needs of students—those who are mainstream (non-CLD/non-special education), mainstream-special education, CLD learner, CLD learner-special education—are mixed in the same classroom.

Such complexity would argue that an inclusive classroom be equipped with additional educational resources, such as teaching assistants, lower student-to-teacher ratio, and augmented budget for instructional materials. The chief resource in any classroom, however, is

TABLE 8.4 Strategies for Additional Mediation of the Listening Process for Included Students

Phase	Strategies
Before listening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Directly instruct listening strategies. ■ Arrange information in short, logical, well-organized segments. ■ Demonstrate ways to pay attention. ■ Preview the content with questions that require critical thinking. ■ Establish a listening goal for the lesson. ■ Provide prompts indicating that the information about to be presented is important enough to remember or write down.
During listening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Actively involve students in rehearsing, summarizing, and taking notes. ■ Use purposeful, curriculum-related listening activities. ■ Model listening behavior and furnish peer models. ■ Teach students to attend to teacher cues and nonverbal signs that denote important information. ■ Provide verbal, pictorial, or written prelistening organizers to cue students to important information. ■ Show students how to self-monitor their listening behavior with self-questioning techniques and visual imagery while listening.
After listening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Discuss content. Use teacher questions and prompts to cue student response (e.g., “Tell me more”). ■ Integrate other language arts and content activities with listening as a follow-up.

Source: Adapted from Mandlebaum & Wilson (1989).

the breadth and variety of instructional strategies on which the experienced teacher can draw. The following sections suggest multiple strategies in the areas of listening skills, reading, and writing.

Adapting Listening Tasks Techniques for teaching listening skills have been grouped in Table 8.4 into the three phases of the listening process: before listening, during listening, after listening.

Adapting Reading Tasks Reading assignments for inclusion follow the three-part division of the reading process (before reading, during reading, and after reading). Smith, Polloway, Patton, and Dowdy (2003) recommend the following three-part adaptations. Before reading, the teacher can *preview reading materials* to assist students with establishing purpose, activating prior knowledge, budgeting time, and focusing attention; *build schemata* by explaining how new content to be learned relates to content previously learned; *preteach vocabulary* to ensure that students know these vocabulary words rather than just recognize them; *precheck readability levels* of the textbooks and trade books used in class are commensurate with the students' language levels; *locate lower-reading-level supplements* on the same topic so that tasks can be adapted to be multilevel and multimodal; *rewrite material* (or solicit staff or volunteers to do so) to simplify the reading level or provide chapter outlines or summaries; and *tape text reading* or have it read orally to a student by volunteers and/or paraprofessionals to enhance comprehension.

During instruction, students can use *teacher-made study guides* to highlight key words, phrases, and concepts with outlines or study guides; and use *visual aids* (e.g., charts and graphs) to supplement reading tasks. It is helpful to reduce extraneous noise while students are reading. After reading, students can paraphrase material to clarify content. The teacher can encourage feedback and reading response from students to check for understanding; reteach vocabulary

to ensure retention; refer students to specific page numbers where answers can be found in a reading comprehension/content assignment; and use brief individual conferences with students to verify comprehension. These scaffolds can amplify comprehension and help students to enjoy reading.

Adapting Writing Tasks Writing is used for two main purposes in classrooms: to capture and demonstrate content knowledge (taking notes, writing answers on assignments or tests) and to express creativity. If the acquisition of content knowledge is the goal, students can often use a variety of alternatives to writing that avoid large amounts of written work (both in class and homework). In general, teachers of students with special needs in inclusive settings change the response mode to oral when appropriate (Smith, Polloway, Patton, & Dowdy, 2003).

Overall, the classroom teacher with a wide repertoire of strategies for instructing English learners will be able to employ these techniques to augment mainstream instruction whenever necessary. One caution, however: learning English is not a compensatory endeavor, not a handicap. English learners are doing on a daily basis what the average resident of the United States cannot do—function in two languages. When successful, it is an intellectual triumph.



Regardless of how valid, reliable, and practical an assessment may be, if it serves only the teachers' and the institution's goals, the students' language progress may not be promoted. Assessment must instead be an integral part of a learning environment that encourages students to acquire a second language as a means to fulfill personal and academic goals.



Culture and Cultural Diversity and Their Relationship to Academic Achievement

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter, you should be able to ...

- Define culture; describe the psychological, sociocultural factors and educational issues that affect English learners;
- Explain the process of, and the issues surrounding, cultural contact, and possible ways to resolve problems of cultural contact;
- Characterize in detail the history and demographics of cultural diversity within the United States as well as the historical and contemporary causes of migration and immigration, and the challenges of linguistic and cultural diversity;
- Depict the ways that intercultural communication, both verbal and nonverbal, is affected by diversity; relate ways that intercultural communication strategies can be used and taught in the classroom; and
- Investigate oneself as a cultural being by engaging in self-study and growth relationships.

Cultural Concepts and Perspectives

People used to think of culture as Culture, as in “highbrow” activities such as going to the opera or symphony, or as Exotic Culture, such as viewing a display of African masks. But culture is more than performing traditional rites or crafting ritual objects. Culture, though largely invisible, influences the way people think, talk, and act—the very way people see the world.

Cultural patterns are especially evident in schools because home and school are the chief sites where the young are acculturated. If we accept the organization, teaching and learning styles, and curricula of the schools as natural and right, we may not realize that these patterns are cultural; they seem natural and right only to the members of the culture who created them. As children of nondominant cultures enter the schools, however, they may find the organization, teaching and learning styles, and curricula to be alien, incomprehensible, and exclusionary.

Fortunately, teachers can learn to see clearly the key role of culture in teaching and learning. They can incorporate culture into classroom activities in superficial ways—as a group of artifacts (baskets, masks, distinctive clothing), as celebrations of holidays (Cinco de Mayo, Martin Luther King Jr. Day), or as a laundry list of stereotypes and insensitivities to be avoided. These ways of dealing with culture are limiting but useful as a starting point.

However, teachers can also gain a more insightful view of culture and cultural processes and use this understanding to move beyond the superficial. To be knowledgeable as an intercultural educator is to understand that observable cultural items are but one aspect of the cultural web—the intricate pattern that weaves and binds a people together. Knowing that culture provides the lens through which people view the world, teachers can look at the “what” of a culture—the artifacts, celebrations, traits, and facts—and ask “why?” Knowledge of the deeper elements of culture—beyond aspects such as food, clothing, holidays, and celebrations—can give teachers a cross-cultural perspective that allows them to educate students to the fullest extent possible.

What Is Culture?

Does a fish understand water? Do people understand their own culture? Teachers are responsible for helping to pass on cultural knowledge through the schooling process. Can teachers step outside their own culture long enough to see how it operates and to understand its effects on culturally diverse students? A way to begin is to define culture.

Defining Culture The term *culture* is used in many ways. It can refer to activities such as art, drama, and ballet or to items such as pop music, mass media entertainment, and comic books. The term *culture* can be applied to distinctive groups in society, such as adolescents and their culture. It can be a general term for a society, such as the “French culture.” Such uses do not, however, define what a culture is. As a field of study, culture is conceptualized in various ways (see Table 9.1).

The definitions in Table 9.1 have common factors but they vary in emphasis. Early cultural theorists emphasize the way an individual is immersed in culture, even unknowingly; whereas postmodern definitions make the point that the individual plays an active role in shaping his or her cultural ambiance, and must continually remake a cultural identity (using language and power) to adapt to shifting circumstances. The following definition of culture combines the ideas in Table 9.1 with other contemporary notions:

Culture is the explicit and implicit patterns for living, the dynamic system of commonly agreed-upon symbols and meanings, the deep structure of knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs, behaviors, traditions, and/or habits that are shared and make up the total way of life of a people, as negotiated by individuals in the process of constructing a personal identity.

To understand culture, one must look beyond the obvious to understand how values, codes, beliefs, and social relations are continually being reshaped by shifting parameters of place, identity, history, and power. Rather than individuals being excluded for differing from cultural norms, people with dissonant, flexible, complex, and hybrid racial and ethnic identities struggle to generate new meanings within accommodating contexts as they use experimentation and creativity to rework existing configurations of knowledge and power and thus extend the possibilities of being human, even in the face of an uncertain outcome. (Díaz-Rico, 2013, pp. 263–264)

The important idea is that culture involves both observable behaviors and intangibles such as beliefs and values, rhythms, rules, and roles. The concept of culture has evolved over the past fifty years away from the idea of culture as an invisible, patterning force to that of culture as an active tension between the social “shortcuts” that make consensual society possible and the contributions and construction that each individual creates while living in society. To mix metaphors, culture is not only the filter through which people see the world but also the raw dough from which each person fashions a life that is individual and satisfying.

TABLE 9.1 Definitions of Culture

Definition	Source
The sum total of a way of life of a people; patterns experienced by individuals as normal ways of acting, feeling, and being.	Hall (1959)
That complex whole that includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, and custom, and any other capabilities acquired by humans as members of society.	Tylor (in Pearson, 1974)
A dynamic system of symbols and meanings that involves an ongoing, dialectic process in which past experience influences meaning, which in turn affects future experience, which in turn affects subsequent meaning, and so on.	Robinson (1985)
Mental constructs in three basic categories: <i>shared knowledge</i> (information known in common by members of the group), <i>shared views</i> (beliefs and values shared by members of a group), and <i>shared patterns</i> (habits and norms in the ways members of a group organize their behavior, interaction, and communication).	Snow (1996)
Partial solutions to previous problems that humans create in joint mediated activity; the social inheritance embodied in artifacts and material constituents of culture as well as in practices and ideal symbolic forms; semi-organized hodgepodge of human inheritance. Culture is exteriorized mind and mind is interiorized culture.	Cole (1998)
Frames (nationality, gender, ethnicity, religion) carried by each individual that are internalized, individuated, and emerge in interactions.	Smith, Paige, & Steglitz (1998)
People are never merely passively subordinated, never totally manipulated, never entirely incorporated. People are engaged in struggles with, within, and sometimes against real tendentious forces and determinations in their efforts to appropriate what they are given. Consequently, their relations to particular practices and texts are complex and contradictory. . . . If people's lives are never merely determined by the dominant position, and if their subordination is always complex and active, understanding culture requires us to look at how practices are actively inserted at particular sites of everyday life and how particular articulations empower and disempower their audiences.	Grossberg (1988, pp. 169–170)
[T]he social bond is a weave of crisscrossing threads of discursive practices, no single one of which runs continuously throughout the whole. Individuals are the nodes or “posts” where such practices intersect and, so, they participate in many simultaneously. It follows that social identities are complex and heterogeneous.	Fraser & Nicholson (1988, pp. 88–89)

TABLE 9.2 Components of Culture

Component	Example	Component	Example
Daily life	Animals	Interacting	Chatting
	Clothing		Eating
	Daily schedule		Drinking
	Food		Gift giving
	Games		Language learning
	Hobbies		Parties
	Housing		Politeness
	Hygiene		Problem solving
	Jobs		Business
	Medical care		Cities
	Plants		Economy
	Recreation		Education
	Shopping		Farming
	Space		Industry
	Sports		Government and politics
	Time		Languages and dialects
	Traffic and transport		Law and order
	Travel		Science
The cycle of life	Birth	The nation	Social problems
	Children		Holidays
	Dating/mating		Geography
	Marriage		History
	Divorce		Famous people
	Friends		National issues
	Old age		Stereotypes
	Funerals		Arts
	Rites of passage		Entertainment
	Philosophy		Literature
Values	Religion	Creative arts	Music
	Beliefs		Television

Source: Snow, 1996.

Because culture is all-inclusive, it includes multiple aspects of life. Snow (1996) listed a host of components (see Table 9.2).

Key Concepts about Culture

To understand culture, one cannot simply total a list of traits—there is wholeness about cultures, with various aspects overlapping and integrated with other aspects. Cultures cannot be taught merely by examining external features such as art and artifacts, although those may be a useful starting point. Even traveling to a country may not engender a deeper understanding of that country’s culture(s). To understand a culture,

one must examine the living patterns and values of the people living in that culture. Despite the aspects of diverse cultures that may seem unique, cultures have various elements in common.

Culture Is Universal Everyone in the world belongs to one or more cultures. Each culture provides organized ways to carry out and interpret such experiences as serving food, speaking to children, marrying, and so forth. Because humans have similar needs, cultures must meet these needs, albeit in diverse ways.

Culture Simplifies Living Social behaviors and customs offer structure to daily life that minimizes interpersonal stress. Cultural patterns are routines that free humans from endless negotiation about each detail of living. Culture helps to unify a society by providing a common base of communication and social customs.

Culture Is Learned in a Process of Deep Conditioning Cultural patterns are absorbed unconsciously from birth, as well as explicitly taught by other members. The fact that cultural patterns are deep makes it difficult for the members of a given culture to see their own culture as learned behavior.

Culture Is Demonstrated in Values, Beliefs, and Behaviors Every culture holds some beliefs and behaviors to be more desirable than others, whether about nature, human character, material possessions, or other aspects of the human condition. Those members of the culture who exemplify these values are rewarded with prestige or approval.

Culture Is Expressed Both Verbally and Nonverbally Although language and culture are closely identified, nonverbal components of culture can be just as powerful in communicating cultural beliefs, behaviors, and values. Images, gestures, and emotions are as culturally conditioned as words. In the classroom, teachers may misunderstand a student's intent if non-verbal communication is misinterpreted.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Nonverbal Miscommunication

Ming was taught at home to sit quietly when she was finished with a task and wait for her mother to praise her. As a newcomer in the third grade, she waited quietly when finished with her reading assignment. Mrs. Wakefield expected Ming to take out a book to read or to begin another assignment when she completed her work. She made a mental note: "Ming lacks initiative."

Societies Represent a Mix of Cultures The patterns that dominate a society form the *macroculture* of that society. Within the macroculture, a variety of *microcultures* (subcultures) coexist, distinguished by characteristics such as gender, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, geographical location, social identification, and language use.

DID YOU KNOW?**GENERATIONS OF JAPANESE IMMIGRANTS**

The first generation of Japanese immigrants, who often referred to themselves as *issei* or first generation, came to the United States starting about 1900. These were, for the most part, young men who worked as agricultural laborers or skilled craftsmen. Often seen as a threat by European Americans, these immigrants were often the targets of discrimination. This prejudice came to a head after the attack by the Japanese on Pearl Harbor in 1941, when the *issei* were divested of their property and removed to relocation camps. After the war, their children, the *nisei* generation, assumed a low ethnic profile, perhaps as a response to the treatment of their parents. (Leathers, 1967)

Generational experiences can cause the formation of microcultures. For example, the children of Vietnamese who immigrated to the United States after the Vietnam War often became native speakers of English, although their parents often spoke little English. This separated the two generations by language. Similarly, Mexicans who migrate to the United States may find that their children born in the United States do not consider themselves Mexicans or *Mexican American* but instead identify with other terms such as *Chicano*.

Most Societies Have a Mainstream Culture The term *mainstream culture* refers to those individuals or groups who share values of the dominant macroculture. In the United States, the macroculture's traditions and cultural patterns—the mainstream culture—have largely been determined by European Americans who

constitute the middle class. Mainstream American culture is characterized by the following values (Gollnick & Chinn, 2013):

- Individualism and privacy
- Independence and self-reliance
- Equality
- Ambition and industriousness
- Competitiveness
- Appreciation of the good life
- Perception that humans are separate from, and superior to, nature

Culture Is Both Dynamic and Persistent Some features of human cultures are flexible and responsive to change, and other features last thousands of years without changing. Values and customs relating to birth, marriage, medicine, education, and death seem to be the most persistent, for humans seem to be deeply reluctant to alter those cultural elements that influence labor and delivery, marital happiness, health, life success, and eternal rest.

Culture Is a Mix of Rational and Nonrational Elements Much as individuals living in western European post-Enlightenment societies may believe that reason should govern human behavior, many cultural patterns are passed on through habit rather than reason. People who bring a real tree into their houses in December—despite the mess it creates—do so because of age-old Yule customs. Similarly, carving a face on a hollow pumpkin or hiding colored eggs are hardly rational activities. Customs persist because they provide human satisfaction, or offer workable solutions to persistent problems, such as assigning postal numbers to houses on a street.

Cultures Represent Different Values The fact that each culture possesses its own particular traditions, values, and ideals means that each culture of a society judges right from wrong in a different way. Actions can be judged only in relation to the cultural setting in which they occur. This point of view has been called *cultural relativism*. In general, the primary values of human nature are universal—for example, few societies condone murder. However, sanctions

relating to actions may differ. The Native American cultures of California before contact with Europeans were peace loving to such an extent that someone who took the life of another would be ostracized by the tribe. In contrast, the U.S. macroculture deems it acceptable for soldiers to kill in the context of war.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Clashing Values about Reading Fiction

Jerome Harvey gave out library prizes in the sixth grade for ROAR (Required Outside Additional Reading). Students competed with one another to see how many pages they could read and report during the contest period. Min-Yi Chen, one of the outstanding readers in class, ranked near the bottom in number of pages. Mr. Harvey brought this up with the Chens at the fall parent-teacher conference. “Well,” said Mr. Chen, “Reading of stories is a waste of time—we expect her to go to summer math camp, and the entrance exam is in January. She will be working two or three hours per night on that.” Mr. Harvey wonders if he should quit urging Min-Yi to read on her own.

Culture Affects People’s Attitudes toward Schooling Educational aspiration affects the attitude people have toward schooling, what future job or profession they desire, the importance parents ascribe to education, and how much investment in education they are willing to make. The son of blue-collar workers, for example, might not value a college education because his parents, who have not attained such an education, have nevertheless prospered; whereas the daughter of a recent low-wage immigrant may work industriously in school to pursue higher education and a well-paid job. Cultural values also affect the extent to which families are involved in their children’s schooling and the forms this involvement takes. Family involvement is discussed in Chapter 10.

BEST PRACTICE Working with Aspirations about Schooling

In working with English learners, teachers will want to know the following:

- What educational level does the family and community expect for the student?
- What understanding do family members have about the connection between educational level attained and career aspiration?
- What link does the family make between current effort and career aspiration?

Culture Governs the Way People Learn Any learning that takes place is built on previous learning. Students have absorbed the basic patterns of living in the context of their families. They have acquired the verbal and nonverbal behaviors appropriate for their gender and age and have observed their family members in various occupations and activities. They have seen community members cooperating to learn in a variety of methods and modes. Their families have given them a feeling for music and art and have shown them what is beautiful and what is not. Finally, they have learned to use language in the context of their homes and communities, and they can express their needs, desires, and delights.

The culture that students bring from the home is the foundation for their learning in school. Although certain communities exist in relative poverty—that is, they are not equipped with middle-class resources—poverty should not be equated with cultural deprivation. Every community's culture incorporates vast knowledge about successful living. Teachers can use this cultural knowledge to organize students' learning in schools.

Culture appears to influence the way individuals select strategies and approach learning. For example, students who live in a farming community may have sensitive and subtle knowledge about weather patterns, and this may predispose students to value study in the classroom that helps them better understand natural processes such as climate. These students may prefer a kinesthetic style that builds on the same kind of learning that has made it possible for them to sense subtleties of weather. In a similar manner, Mexican American children from traditional families who are encouraged to view themselves as an integral part of the family may prefer social learning activities.

Acting and performing are the focus of learning for many African American children. Children observe other individuals to determine appropriate behavior and to appreciate the performance of others. In this case, observing and listening culminates in an individual's performance before others (Heath, 1999). In contrast, reading and writing may be primary learning modes for other cultures. Traditionally educated Asian students equate the printed page with learning and often use reading and writing to reinforce understanding. Despite these varying approaches, all cultures lay out the basic design for learning for their members.

Ethnocentrism Versus Cultural Relativism Individuals who grow up within a macro-culture and never leave it may act on the assumption that their values are the norm. When encountering other cultures, they may be unable or unwilling to recognize that alternative beliefs and behaviors are legitimate within the larger society. Paige (1999) defined this ethnocentrism as how “people unconsciously experience their own cultures as central to reality. They therefore avoid the idea of cultural difference as an implicit or explicit threat to the reality of their own cultural experience” (p. 22).

In contrast, people who accept cultural relativism recognize that all behavior exists in a cultural context, including their own. They understand the limitation this places on their experience, and they therefore seek out cultural diversity as a way of understanding others and enriching their own experience of reality (Paige, 1999). When people adopt a culturally relative point of view, they are able to accept that a different culture might have different operating rules, and they are willing to see that in a neutral way, without having to judge their own culture as inferior or superior by comparison.

Cultural Relativism Versus Ethical Relativism Accepting the fact that a person from another culture may have different values does not mean that from a culturally relative point of view one must always agree with the values of a different culture—some cultural differences may be judged negatively—but the judgment is not ethnocentric in the sense of denying that such a difference could occur. Cultural relativism is not the same as ethical relativism—saying “cultures have different values” is not the same as saying “morally and ethically, anything goes” (all behavior is acceptable in all contexts). One does not have to abandon one's own cultural values to appreciate the idea that not all cultures share the same values.

Cultural Pluralism The idea that a society can contain a variety of cultures is a pluralist viewpoint. There are two kinds of pluralist models—*pluralist preservation* holds that a society

should preserve all cultures intact, with diversity and unity as equal values, whereas *pluralistic integration* is the belief that a society should have consensus about core civic values. Both these positions contrast with the idea that a society should be composed of a monoculture, with all diversity assimilated (the “melting pot” model).

Individually, some people are *bicultural*, able to shift their cultural frames of reference and intentionally change their behavior to communicate more effectively when in a different culture. However, just because people are raised in two cultures does not necessarily give them the ability to understand themselves or to generalize cultural empathy to a third culture.

Even in a society in which members of diverse cultural groups have equal opportunities for success, and in which cultural similarities and differences are valued, ethnic group identity differences may lead to intergroup conflict. A dynamic relationship between ethnic groups is inevitable; each society must find healthy ways to mediate conflict. The strength of a healthy society is founded on a basic willingness to work together to resolve conflicts. Schools can actively try to foster interaction and integration among different groups. Integration creates the conditions for cultural pluralism.

Cultural Congruence In U.S. schools, the contact of cultures occurs daily. Students from families whose cultural values are similar to those of the European American mainstream culture may be relatively advantaged in schools, such as children from those Asian cultures who are taught that students sit quietly and attentively—behavior that is rewarded in most classrooms. In contrast, African American students who learn at home to project their personalities and call attention to their individual attributes (Gay, 1975) may be punished for acting out. The congruence or lack thereof between mainstream and minority cultures has lasting effects on students.

Teachers, who have the responsibility to educate students from diverse cultures, find it relatively easy to help students whose values, beliefs, and behaviors are congruent with U.S. schooling but often find it difficult to work with others. The teacher who can find a common ground with diverse students will promote their further education. Relationships between individuals or groups of different cultures are built through commitment, enjoyment of diversity, and a willingness to communicate. The teacher, acting as intercultural educator, accepts and promotes cultural content in the classroom as a valid and vital component of the instructional process and helps students to achieve within the cultural context of the school.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Schooling in Vietnam

American schools may be a shock for children—and for parents—who have immigrated from Vietnam. In Vietnam children go to school six days a week for about five hours. In most subjects, students are taught by means of rote learning. There is a strong emphasis on moral and civic education, especially the behavior expected of a socialist citizen. Most schools have no playground equipment or extracurricular activities. Teachers are required to pay for classroom supplemental materials themselves, such as art supplies. The high school curriculum is college-entry-examination oriented.

Source: http://factsanddetails.com/southeast-asia/Vietnam/sub5_9f/entry-3458.html

The Impact of Physical Geography on Cultural Practices A social group must develop the knowledge, ideas, and skills it needs to survive in the kind of environment the group inhabits. The geographical environment or physical habitat challenges the group to adapt to or modify the world to meet its needs. When the Native Americans were the sole inhabitants of the North American continent, a wide variety of cultures existed, a necessary response to the variety in the environment. The Iroquois were a village people who lived surrounded by tall wooden palisades. The Chumash, in contrast, had a leisurely seashore existence on the California coast where fishing was plentiful and the climate moderate. Still a third group, the Plains Indians, were a nomadic people who followed the bison. Each group's culture was adapted for success in its own specific environment.

Classrooms constitute physical environments. These environments have an associated culture. In a room in which the desks are in straight lines facing forward, participants are acculturated to listen as individuals and to respond when spoken to by the teacher. This may be a difficult environment for a young Pueblo child whose learning takes place largely in the communal courtyards outside comfortable adobe dwellings and who is taught traditional recipes by a mother or grandmother or the secrets of tribal lore in an underground kiva by the men of the village. The physical environments in which learning takes place vary widely from one culture to another.

Intragroup and Intergroup Cultural Differences Even among individuals from the same general cultural background, there are intragroup differences that affect their worldviews. Some student populations have very different cultures despite a shared ethnic background. Such is the case at Montebello High School in the Los Angeles area:

Students at Montebello ... may look to outsiders as a mostly homogeneous population—93 percent Latino, 70 percent low-income—but the 2,974 Latino students are split between those who are connected to their recent immigrant roots and those who are more Americanized. On the “TJ” (for Tijuana) side of the campus, students speak Spanish, take ESL classes, and participate in soccer, *folklórico* dancing, and the Spanish club. On the other side of campus, students speak mostly English, play football and basketball, and participate in student government. The two groups are not [mutually] hostile ... but, as senior Lucia Rios says, “it’s like two countries.” The difference in values between the two groups stems from their families’ values—the recent immigrants are focused on economic survival and do not have the cash to pay for extracurricular activities. ... Another difference is musical taste (soccer players listen to Spanish music in the locker room, whereas football players listen to heavy metal and rap). (Hayasaki, 2004, pp. A1, A36–A37)

In the preceding example, the immigrants who had arrived within the last three to five years still referred to Mexico as home. Most of these students were monolingual in Spanish, with varying levels of English proficiency. In contrast, the U.S.-born Mexican American students were English speakers—although they had Mexican last names, they were strongly acculturated into mainstream U.S. values and manifested few overt Mexican cultural symbols. Each of these groups could be considered a microculture within the larger microculture of people of Mexican descent living within the United States.

In this case, social identification and language usage, as well as dress, were the markers of the distinct microcultures. As immigrants enter American life, they make conscious or unconscious choices about which aspects of their culture to preserve and which to modify. These decisions are a response to cultural contact.

Looking at Culture from the Inside Out

External Elements of Culture External elements of culture (e.g., shelter, clothing, food, arts and literature, religious structures, government, technology, language) are relatively easily identified as cultural markers. Certainly young immigrant children would feel comfortable if external elements of their home culture were prominently displayed in the classroom or school. A display of Mexican-style paper cutouts as decoration in a classroom, for example, usually would be viewed in a positive way and not as a token of superficial cultural appropriation.

Indeed, external elements of culture are visible and obvious, to the extent that these are often used as symbols of cultural diversity. How many times does a printed flyer for a Chinese guest speaker have to display a bamboo border before this becomes hackneyed? These visible markers are “ethnic,” as in “ethnic food.” When one goes out for “ethnic food,” does one eat roast beef and potatoes—quintessentially British food? When these external symbols are marked only for minorities, the mainstream culture thinks of itself as “culturally neutral,” whereas those displaying external elements of microcultures are considered “ethnic.” Thus, European American culture is maintained as the norm.

Internal Elements of Culture Internal elements of culture (e.g., values, customs, worldview, mores, beliefs and expectations, rites and rituals, patterns of nonverbal communication, social roles and status, gender roles, family structure, patterns of work, and leisure) are harder to identify as cultural markers because they are intangible. Yet these can be as persistent and emotionally loaded as external symbols such as flags or religious icons. In fact, behaviors and attitudes that are misinterpreted can be considered potentially more damaging than misunderstandings about overt symbols, especially with people from cultures that are skilled in reading subtle behavior signals.

Families whose values and activities related to learning match those of the school are considered “culturally congruent.”





CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Can't You Tell I'm Bored?

In an English-language development (ELD) class with beginning middle school English learners, Iris Schaffer pointed to a picture with birds on a tree. “Is this a bird or a tree?” she asked. “How many leaves are there on the ground? What is the color of the leaves?”

From the student’s facial expressions and voice tones, a visitor noted that they were bored and showed little interest in learning. To be asked these types of questions at their age could be insulting. The question was, why didn’t the teacher know the students were bored? Were their behaviors and attitudes too subtle for the teacher to read? Was she unable to decipher these internal elements of culture?

Source: Adapted from Fu, 2004, pp. 9–10

Cultural Diversity: Historical and Contemporary Perspectives

The rhetoric seeking to explain school failure of minority children has changed over the years. Because racial explanations have largely failed—although even as late as the turn of the twenty-first century, several psychologists tried to resurrect racial inferiority theory—there have been attempts to find other explanations based more on cultural than racial differences.

From Racial Inferiority to Cultural Inferiority Binet’s research on intelligence at the turn of the twentieth century, researchers became convinced that inherited racial differences were an explanation for the differential success of students. This became a rationale for unequal school facilities. The genetic inferiority argument, now discredited, assumes that certain populations do not possess the appropriate genes for high intellectual performance.

After the 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* decision officially signaled the end of segregated schools, the continued lack of school achievement on the part of racial minorities in the United States was attributed not to racial differences but to the fact that families originating in poor, working-class, urban areas were holders of a culture that was inherently inferior. This was a *cultural deprivation* or *cultural deficit* model—essentially, it blamed the poor for the lack of resources in the home. Conveniently, it could be used to blame cultural minorities as well as racial minorities.

Cultural Incompatibility Theory The next theory, *cultural incompatibility* or *cultural mismatch*, denied the implication of an inherent inferiority in minority cultures but posited that the difference in home culture versus school culture was one of the reasons minority students do poorly (Irvine, 1990). The cultural mismatch perspective maintains that cultures vary, and that some of the skills learned in one culture may transfer to a second, but that other skills will be of little value or, worse, interfere with assimilation to the new culture.

Cultural mismatch was quickly generalized from its origin in race theory to all cultural differences, including those involving language. Unlike cultural deprivation theory, it placed no explicit value judgment on the culture of either the school or the home, merely stating that when teachers and students do not share the same culture, the different cultural behaviors performed by the other are open to misinterpretation because neither party realizes they may be operating on different cultural codes. Yet the implication was that students from cultures most like those of European Americans would do well in school, students from noncongruent cultures would not.

The concept that minority students experience a cultural dissonance between their home and school culture is well documented (Heath, 1999). Unfortunately, this theory has left the onus on teachers to change conditions within the classroom to accommodate the students' cultures, which has proved to be difficult when students from many cultures are schooled in the same room. The result has been "business as usual," with the culture of the schools remaining intact along with the expectation that the culture of the home will change.

The Contextual Interaction Model Another explanation posits that achievement is a function of the interaction between two cultures. The contextual interaction model states the values of each are not static but instead adapt to one another when contact occurs. This is the origin of the idea that teachers should accommodate instruction to students as they acculturate.

Issues of Power and Status In classrooms during the monolingual era, students spoke one language or remained silent. The institution controlled the goals and purposes of students' second-language acquisition. There was no question who had the power—the teacher, the authorities, and the language sanctioned by the school (McCarty, 2005).

As for theories of cultural incompatibility, in retrospect these were too narrowly focused on the student, the school, and the home, ignoring the larger issue of inequity of resources in society. The "cure" for school failure in the cultural dissonance model was to align the cultures of the home and school more congruently—and because teachers and schools could not accomplish that mission in the short time allotted for teacher multicultural education, the burden was put again to the families to assimilate more rapidly. Hence the classic emphasis put on the individual to transcend his or her social class.

As soon as the limitations of this liberalist model became apparent, a conservative federal administration instituted rigorous testing, setting into motion the specter of failure not only for individuals but also for entire schools in minority communities. This distracted schools from the mission of cultural congruence and left the issues unresolved, emphasizing instead standardized testing.

The Impact of Ethnic Politics In the postmodern shift, power circulates, just as dual-language acquisition circulates power between peoples and among cultures. Instead of the pretense that power is nonnegotiable, unavailable, and neutral, communities sought to gain the power to speak, to use a public voice for their self-determined ends. This resulted in the movement toward charter schools, by which families can choose to exit the public schools.

Some charter schools have done a better job than the public schools of fostering ethnic pride. One student from a small middle school in Oakland, California, put it this way:

It was just really like a community setting . . . like we were learning at home . . . with a bunch of our friends. They had really nice teachers who were, you know, mostly Chicano and Chicana . . . We could relate to them. They know your culture, your background. [They] talk to your parents and your parents trust them. It's like a family. (Wexler & Huerta, 2002, p. 100)

The pursuit of local schools that reflect the values of the parent community has led to serious alternatives to the dream of the public school that can educate all children with equity under one roof. Many advocates of charter schools no longer believe that the children of diversity can wrest a high-quality education from neighborhood schools that are underfunded and mediocre. The notion of empowerment has taken many ethnic communities down the path of separatism (Fuller, 2003). Overall, charter schools have proven to be of mixed success.

Political and Socioeconomic Factors Affecting English Learners and Their Families

By the year 2010—ten years into the new millennium—one of every three Americans was African American, Hispanic American, or Asian American. This represents a dramatic change from the image of the United States throughout its history. Immigration, together with differing birthrates among various populations, is responsible for this demographic shift. Along with the change in racial and ethnic composition has come a dramatic change in the languages spoken in the United States as well as the languages heard in U.S. schools.

These changing demographics are seen as positive or negative depending on one's point of view. Some economists have found that immigrants contribute considerably to the national economy by filling low-wage jobs, spurring investment and job creation, revitalizing once-decaying communities, and paying billions annually in taxes. Unfortunately, the money generated from federal taxes is not returned to the local communities most affected by immigration to pay for schools, hospitals, and social services needed by newcomers. The resultant stress on these services may cause residents to view newcomers negatively.

In the midst of changing demographics in the United States, immigrants and economically disadvantaged minorities within the country face such challenges as voting and citizenship status; family income, employment, and educational attainment; housing; and health care availability.

Culture and Gender Issues Parents of English learners often work long hours outside the home, and some families simply are unable to dedicate time each evening to help students complete school assignments. Many young people find themselves working long hours outside the home to help support the family or take care of siblings while parents work double shifts. The role of surrogate caretaker often falls disproportionately on young women, compromising their academic potential. Some immigrant families favor the academic success of sons over daughters, to the dismay of teachers in the United States who espouse equality of opportunity for women. This issue may be more acute as high school students contemplate attending college.

Other issues have emerged as immigrants enter U.S. schools from ever more diverse cultures. Some girls from traditional cultures are forbidden by their families to wear physical education attire that reveals bare legs. Male exchange students from Muslim cultures may be uncomfortable working in a mixed-gender cooperative learning group in the classroom. Parents who have adopted children from the People's Republic of China may request heritage-language services from the local school district. Multiple issues of language and culture complicate schooling for English learners.

Poverty among Minority Groups A key difficulty for many minorities is poverty. In 2016, almost one-quarter (22 percent) of African Americans and 19 percent of Hispanic Americans lived in poverty, compared with Whites at 8.8 percent (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). Poverty hits minority children particularly hard. In 2016, 41 percent of the 72.4 million children in the United States who were age eighteen or under lived in poverty (about 30 million children). In percentages, 35 percent of poor children are White, 24 percent are Black, and 36 percent are Hispanic (Koball & Jiang, 2018). The Children's Defense Fund (2017) reports that 31 percent of Black children live under the poverty line, and 27 percent of Hispanic children are poor.

Poverty does not mean merely inadequate income; rather, it engenders a host of issues, including underemployment, insufficient income and jobs with limited opportunity, homelessness, lack of health insurance, inadequate education, and poor nutrition. Poor children are

at least twice as likely as nonpoor children to suffer stunted growth or lead poisoning or to be kept back in school. They score significantly lower on reading, math, and vocabulary tests when compared with similar nonpoor children (Children's Defense Fund, 2017). However, not all poverty can be linked to these difficulties; some minorities continue in poverty because of social and political factors in the country at large, such as racism and discrimination.

Poverty affects the ability of the family to devote resources to educational effort and stacks the deck against minority-student success. Demographic trends ensure that this will be a continuing problem in the United States. Almost three-quarters (74.0 percent) of the Hispanic population is under thirty-five years of age, compared with a little more than half (51.7 percent) of the non-Hispanic White population. The average Hispanic female is well within childbearing age, and Hispanic children constitute the largest growing school population. Therefore, the educational achievement of Hispanic children is of particular concern.

Educational Issues Involving English Learners Beyond the Classroom

What obligation does a community have toward non-English-speaking children? When education is the only means of achieving social mobility for the children of immigrants, these young people must be given the tools necessary to participate in the community at large. When school dropout rates exceed 50 percent among minority populations, it seems evident that the schools are not providing an adequate avenue of advancement. Clearly, some English learners do succeed: Asian American students are overwhelmingly represented in college attendance, whereas Hispanics are underrepresented.

Individual states are addressing the obligation to educate all students by adhering to content standards documents, such as the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA). Nevertheless, children continue to receive different treatment in the public schools. The structure of schooling creates equity problems, all the way from segregative tracking procedures to the day-to-day operation of classrooms, in which some students' voices are heard while others are silenced. These structural components of schools must be addressed lest the belief continue that achievement problems reside solely within students.

In schools, underachievement, the "overachievement" myth, segregation, overreferral to special education, lack of access to the core curricula, and little support for the home language are key concerns. These phenomena may occur because of the ways in which schools and classrooms promote unequal classroom experiences for students. In response to the perception that some students underachieve or overachieve or drop out or are pushed out, schools have designed various mechanisms to help students succeed. Some of these have been successful, others problematic.

The economy of the United States in the future will rest more on Asian American and Hispanic American workers than at present. As a consequence, the education of these populations will become increasingly important. Consider that in 2014, 47 percent of students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools were minorities—an increase of 21 percent from 2000, largely due to the growth in the Hispanic population (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2017b).

Of these minorities, 89.1 percent of Asian Americans have a high school degree and 53.9 percent have bachelor degrees or higher. In contrast, only 66.7 percent of Hispanics have high school diplomas and 15.5 percent have college degrees or higher, whereas 88.8 percent of non-Hispanic Whites have high school diplomas and almost one third (32.8 percent) have bachelor degrees (Ryan & Bauman, 2016). With these numbers, the extent of the problem becomes clearer.

Underachievement—Retention, Placement, and Promotion Policies Unfortunately, some students are at risk of grade retention due to underachievement almost immediately on entering school. In 2015, higher overall percentages of Black students (3.0 percent) and Hispanic students (2.9 percent) than of White students (1.8 percent) were retained in kindergarten through twelfth grade (Musu-Gillette, Robinson, McFarland, KewalRamani, Zhang, & Wilkinson-Flicker, 2016), despite the fact that numerous studies have cast doubt on the usefulness of grade retention (see Cordes, 2016, for a review of this literature). However, English learners (ELs) fared far worse:

In every grade except kindergarten, ELs were overrepresented among the students retained in grade at the end of the school year. A larger proportion of the students retained at grade level were ELs, compared to the proportion of ELs enrolled (e.g., 13 percent compared with 10 percent). The overrepresentation of English learners among retained students was largest in high school. . . . For example, in 2011–12, the EL percentage of all students retained in 12th grade (11 percent) was more than twice the EL percentage of students enrolled in 12th grade (5 percent). (U.S. Department of Education Office of Planning, Evaluation and Policy Development Policy and Program Studies Service, 2016, p. 2).

Thus, ELs are much more at risk of school retention than other students. This causes a corresponding hit on graduation rates: ELs' graduation rate (59 percent) is much lower than non-ELs (82 percent). On the other side of the coin, English learners are also differentially distributed in advanced placement courses, thus failing to achieve a type of "in-house" promotion.

Tracking offers very different types of instruction depending on students' placement in academic or general education courses. To justify this, educators have argued that tracking is a realistic, efficient response to an increasingly diverse student population. However, tracking has been found to be a major contributor to the continuing gaps in achievement between minorities and European Americans (Oakes, 1992).

Underachievement—ELD as Compensatory Education The impetus behind the success of the original Bilingual Education Act was that language-minority students needed compensatory education to remediate linguistic "deficiencies." However, compensatory programs are often reduced in scope, content, and pace, and students are not challenged enough, nor given enough of the curriculum to be able to move to mainstream classes.

The view that ELD is compensatory education is all too common. As a part of ELD programs, a portion of the instructional day is usually reserved for ELD instruction. Too often the ELD instruction is given by teaching assistants who have not had professional preparation in ELD teaching, and the instruction has consisted of skill-and-drill worksheets and other decontextualized methods.

Inclusion of English learners in mainstream classrooms and challenging educational programs is now the trend. In a study of good educational practice for English learners, research has found numerous schools that have successfully been educating these students to high standards (McLeod, 1995). In these schools, programs for English learners were an integral part of the whole school program, neither conceptually nor physically separate from the rest of the school.

The exemplary schools have devised creative ways to both include English learners centrally in the educational program and meet their needs for language instruction and modified curriculum. Programs for English learners are so carefully crafted and intertwined with the school's other offerings that it is impossible in many cases to point to "the LEP [limited-English proficient] program" and describe it apart from the general program (McLeod, 1995).

Several reform efforts have attempted to dismantle some of the compensatory education and tracking programs previously practiced in schools. These have included accelerated schools, cooperative learning, restructured schools, and “detracking.” A particularly noteworthy high school program is Advancement Via Individual Determination (AVID). This “detracking” program places low-achieving students (who are primarily from low-income and ethnic or language-minority backgrounds) in the same college preparatory academic program as high-achieving students (who are primarily from middle- or upper-middle-income and “Anglo” backgrounds). Use a search engine to explore the AVID model.

Underachievement—Dropping Out of High School An unfortunate and direct result of being schooled in an unfamiliar language is that some students begin falling behind their expected grade levels, eventually putting them at risk. Students who repeat at least one grade are more likely to drop out of school. Every year across the country, a dangerously high percentage of students—disproportionately poor and minority—disappear from the educational pipeline before graduating from high school. Nationally, only about 68 percent of all students who enter ninth grade will graduate “on time” with regular diplomas in twelfth grade.

Whereas the graduation rate for White students is 75 percent, only approximately half of Latino students earn regular diplomas alongside their classmates. Even though California reports a robust overall graduation rate of 86.9 percent, researchers at the Harvard Civil Rights Project have claimed that this figure dramatically underestimates the actual numbers of dropouts and that graduation rates in individual districts and schools—particularly those with high minority concentrations—remain at crisis-level proportions.

Recent research reveals disturbing dropout rates for minorities in the United States. Seven states had the worst graduation rates for Hispanic/Latino students in 2012–2013: Minnesota (59 percent), Oregon (60.8 percent), New York (62.3 percent), Georgia (62.6 percent), Nevada (64.4 percent), Colorado (65.4 percent), and Washington (65.9 percent) (the national rate was 75 percent) (Wong, 2015). In 2016, Los Angeles Unified School District recorded a 77 percent graduate rate for Latinos, in contrast with 88 percent for Whites and 93 percent for Asians (one source, however, attributed this rate to an array of “credit recovery” programs, in which students can make up missing credits quickly) (Kohli, 2017). Despite a California state graduation rate of 83.2 percent in 2016, just 62 percent of California State University freshmen were considered college-ready in both English and math. Disappointing graduate rates suggest that Hispanics will be underrepresented in higher education for years to come.

An important marketplace repercussion from dropout statistics is the differential rate of employment of these two groups: In 2014, about 70 percent of high school dropouts were in the labor force versus 85 percent of graduates who were enrolled in college (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015).

The Hispanic Dropout Project (1998) explicated the continuing stereotypes, myths, and excuses that surround Hispanic-American youth and their families:

What we saw and what people told us confirmed what well-established research has also found: Popular stereotypes—which would place the blame for school dropout on Hispanic students, their families, and language background, and that would allow people to shrug their shoulders as if to say that that was an enormous, insoluble problem or one that would go away by itself—are just plain wrong. (p. 3)

The Hispanic Dropout Project (1998) found that teachers may make one of two choices that undermine minority students' school achievement: either to blame the students and their families for school failure or to excuse the students' poor performance, citing factors such as low socioeconomic status or lack of English proficiency. This latter attitude, although well meaning, is particularly harmful as it does not allow students access to cognitively demanding instruction.

The three recommendations the Hispanic Dropout Project (1998) report made for teachers are consistent with the principles, concepts, and strategies outlined in this text: (1) Provide high-quality curriculum and instruction—methods and strategies presented in this book; (2) become knowledgeable about students and their families, as discussed in Chapters 9 and 10; and (3) receive high-quality professional development—an ongoing task for which this entire text can be an impetus. The online *Transforming Education for Hispanic Youth: Exemplary Practices, Programs, and Schools* (Lockwood & Secada, 1999) provides more in-depth information about, and examples of, exemplary schools for Hispanic American youth.

Underachievement—Difficulties in Higher Education Several measures of achievement reveal discrepancies in the achievement of Whites in comparison with ethnic minorities. Ethnic minority groups, except for Asian Americans, attain lower levels of higher education. In fall 2015, of 17.0 million undergraduate students, 9.3 million were White, 3.0 million were Hispanic, 2.3 million were Black, 1.1 million were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 132,000 were American Indian/Alaska Native. On one good note, between 2000 and 2015, Hispanic enrollment more than doubled (a 126 percent increase from 1.4 million to 3.0 million students) (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2017). College completion is another matter; only about one in six Latinos who attend college ultimately graduates (Thernstrom & Thernstrom, 2003). In 2013, about 40 percent of Whites between the ages of twenty-five and twenty-nine held a bachelor's degree or more, compared with about 20 percent of Blacks, 15 percent of Hispanics, and 58 percent of Asians (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2017). Low educational levels have resulted in poor subsequent incomes and a lower likelihood of attaining high-prestige occupations.

The “Overachievement” Myth A pernicious view ascribes exceptional achievement to a specific group—Asian Americans. The term *model minority* has been coined for Asian Americans, connoting a supergroup whose members have succeeded in U.S. society despite a long history of racial oppression. Asian American students are seen as academic superstars who win academic distinction and are overrepresented in elite institutions of higher education (Suzuki, 1989).

This stereotype plays out in at least two ways with equally damaging results. First, ascribing a “whiz kid” image to students can mask their individual needs and problems and lead the teacher to assume a student needs little or no help. This may ultimately lead to neglect, isolation, delinquency, or inadequate preparation for the labor market among these students (Feng, 1994).

Second, lumping all Asian Americans together into this stereotype ignores the different cultural, language, economic, and immigration statuses of the various groups and severely limits those most in need of help. Among Southeast Asian students, the Khmer and the Lao tend to have a grade point average (GPA) below that of White majority students, whereas Vietnamese, Chinese Vietnamese, Japanese, Korean, Chinese, and Hmong students tend to achieve well above this GPA level (Trueba, Cheng, & Ima, 1993).

BEST PRACTICE Countering the Model Minority Myth

To avoid reenacting the model minority myth in the classroom:

- Treat students as individuals.
- Do not ascribe high or low expectations based on national origin or ethnicity.
- Recognize that Asian/Pacific Island American students speak different languages and come from different cultural areas.
- Take time to learn about the languages and cultures of students to appreciate their differences.

“Asian-American Children: What Teachers Should Know” (Feng, 1994) provides general information about Asian-American students and a list of practices to help teachers become more knowledgeable about Asian cultures. Equally helpful is Nakanishi and Nishida’s *The Asian American Educational Experience: A Sourcebook for Teachers and Students* (2014).

Segregated Schools Although during the 1970s and 1980s districts were working at desegregating their schools, the 1990s witnessed an increasing number of court cases that released districts from these efforts (Weiler, 1998). Inequity follows segregation. In a study in the Boston metro area, “97 percent of the schools with less than a tenth White students faced concentrated poverty compared to 1 percent of the schools with less than a tenth minority students” (Orfield & Lee, 2005, n.p.). In addition, segregation makes it difficult for English learners to be grouped with native speakers of English during the school day.

Minority students typically live in racially isolated neighborhoods and are more likely to attend segregated schools. More than one-third of Hispanic students (38 percent) and Black students (37 percent) attended schools with minority enrollments of 90 to 100 percent. Seventy-seven percent of Hispanics and 71 percent of Blacks were enrolled in schools where minorities constitute 50 percent or more of the population. Stanch (2018) puts it this way:

According to my analysis of data from the National Center on Education Statistics, the number of segregated schools (defined in this analysis as those schools where less than 40 percent of students are White), has approximately doubled between 1996 and 2016. In that same span, the percentage of children of color attending such a school rose from 59 to 66 percent. For Black students, the percentage in segregated schools rose even faster, from 59 to 71 percent. (n.p.)

Therefore, nearly a half-century after *Brown v. Board of Education*, a student who is Black, Latino, or Native American remains much less likely to succeed in school. A major factor is a disparity of resources—inner-city schools with large minority populations have been found to have higher percentages of first-year teachers, greater enrollments, fewer library resources, and less in-school parental involvement, all characteristics that have been shown to relate to school success.

**CLASSROOM GLIMPSE****High School Apartheid?**

Marshall Cox teaches tenth-grade world cultures in a Los Angeles high school. The high school is situated in a neighborhood that is mixed Hispanic and African American families and has a science magnet program that attracts high-achieving science students from various

other parts of the city. The science students, mostly Asian and European Americans, socialize with their own groups during school and at lunch, as do students of the other ethnicities. Even in his world cultures classes, which are not specific to the regular or magnet program, students from the two programs attend classes at separate times. As part of his responsibilities as a world cultures teacher, Marshall would like to see students from the various ethnicities communicate interculturally more often. Should he try to be proactive? If so, what can he do?

Overreferral to Special Education Referrals and placements in special education have been disproportionate for culturally and linguistically different students. Various explanations have been offered for this overreferral: language problems, poor school progress, academic or cognitive difficulties, low level of acculturation, inadequate assessment, or special learning problems. Biased assessment can result in negative evaluation of English learners, especially when tests are given in English to students without sufficient exposure to it, include language or concepts that favor the middle-class native English speaker, or are predicated on models of cultural deprivation or other deficit models (Valenzuela & Baca, 2004).

Access to Core Curricula Access to the core curriculum is essential for English learners to make adequate progress in school. This means that ELD activities cannot stand in the way of other academic subjects. A student who is pulled out of the class to receive ESL services, for example, cannot miss social studies class. Nor can a student who arrives in a large urban high school without adequate English proficiency be denied an appropriate mathematics curriculum. Meeting the needs of English learners with specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE) instruction is a challenge that must be addressed.

Issues of race and class are compounded by ideas about language in U.S. schools. For example, compared with White and Asian students, Latino students are less likely to be placed in education tracks with rigorous curricula that prepare them for college (Haycock, Jerald, & Huang, 2001). Researchers have pointed out that in spite of multiple initiatives addressing the lack of school success by Hispanics, the achievement gap for Hispanic students is still very much an issue. Hinojosa, Robles-Piña, and Edmonson (2009) commented, “Although the disparity between Hispanic student achievement and that of White and Asian students has been an area of concern for both policy makers and educators for a number of years, the improvement in this area has been minimal” (p. 3).

Little Support for the First Language In U.S. schools, second-language and foreign language learning are neglected in the core curriculum, unlike, for example, in European schools, in which many elementary children are given foreign language classes. U.S. students who are already proficient in a heritage language bring a rich resource to academia that is being tapped now only in two-way immersion programs. Foreign language in the elementary school (FLES) is an academic subject in the United States in elite schools (private schools in New York and Washington, DC, for example), where French (or, less commonly, Japanese) is offered, as well as in privileged environments such as the wealthy suburbs of New York, Boston, San Francisco, and Minneapolis and in university towns such as Chapel Hill, North Carolina, and Austin, Texas.

Yet the urban school districts that do not support maintenance programs in heritage languages are causing students to lose the very language resources that are difficult to reestablish as foreign languages at the high school level. Access to the core curriculum is the right of all learners and, in the case of English learners, that core curriculum should include language classes in the heritage as well as perhaps a third language.

The issues just outlined offer some examples of the complexity involved in educating students of diverse primary languages and cultures. The current emphasis on standards heightens the tensions inherent in such a project. On the positive side, students have a right to a high standard of rich, challenging instruction no matter what linguistic and cultural resources they bring to schooling. On the other hand, the emphasis on high standards must be matched with allocation of funds so that teachers are given the resources they need to accomplish these lofty goals.

The conclusion is inescapable: The educational system of the United States has been fundamentally weak in serving the fastest growing school-age populations. Today's minority students are entering school with significantly different social and economic backgrounds from those of previous student populations and therefore require educators to modify their teaching approaches to ensure that these students have access to the American dream.

These issues involving the education of English learners will not be resolved solely through the efforts of individual teachers, but require a determined effort on the part of educators as a social movement to reverse discriminatory educational policies and achieve full funding for the educational services that English learners deserve. This will require reversal of the damaging educational politics of neoliberalism over the past twenty years (Anyon, 1994).

Cultural Contact

Since the 1980s, an unprecedented flow of immigrants and refugees has entered the United States. One of the impacts of this immigration is that many school districts not only have students speaking three or more languages in a single classroom, but they also have students who speak the same non-English language but who come from different cultures. School officials have found, for example, that many immigrants from Central America do not follow the same pattern of school performance as Mexican American students. These demographic issues provoke the question of whether we can understand how to increase the school success of all students by studying the process of cultural contact.

As immigrants enter American life, they make conscious or unconscious choices about which aspects of their culture to preserve and which to modify, and these decisions affect learning. The contact between the home culture and the school culture influences schooling. The immigrant culture can be swallowed up (*assimilation*), immigrants can adapt to the dominant culture (*acculturation*), both may adapt to each other (*accommodation*), or they may coexist (*pluralism* or *biculturalism*). Contact between cultures is often fraught with misunderstanding, but it can also be positive and enriching. Means of mediation or resolution must be found to help students benefit from one another's cultural knowledge as well as alleviate cultural conflict.

Concerns about Cultural Adaptation

Pryor (2002) captured the nature of immigrant parents' concerns about their children's adjustment to life in the United States:

In the United States, some immigrant parents live in fear that their children will be corrupted by what they believe to be the materialistic and individualistic dominant culture, become alienated from their families, and fall prey to drugs and promiscuity. One Jordanian mother stated, "I tell my son (who is 8 years old) not to use the restroom in school. I tell him it is because he might catch germs there that he could bring home, and make the whole family ill. I really am afraid he may get drugs from other kids in the restroom." (p. 187)

Many immigrant parents are overwhelmed with personal, financial, and work-related problems; they may miss their homelands and family members abroad and have few resources to which to turn for help. They struggle to maintain their dignity in the face of humiliation, frustration, and loneliness. In the process of coming to terms with life in a foreign country, they may be at odds with the assimilation or acculturation processes their children are experiencing, causing family conflict.

Processes of Cultural Contact

Assimilation *Cultural assimilation* is the process by which individuals adopt the behaviors, values, beliefs, and lifestyle of the dominant culture, neglecting or abandoning their own culture in the process. *Structural assimilation* is participation in the social, political, and economic institutions and organizations of mainstream society. It is structural assimilation that has been problematic for many immigrants, especially for groups other than White Protestant immigrants from northern and western Europe.

Individuals may make a choice concerning their degree of cultural assimilation. However, the dominant society determines the extent of structural assimilation. These two related but different concepts have important consequences in classrooms. Teachers may be striving to have students assimilate but be blind to the fact that some of their students will not succeed because of attitudes and structures of the dominant society.

Acculturation When individuals *acculturate*, they adapt to a second culture without necessarily giving up their first culture. It is an additive process in which individuals' rights to participate in their own heritage are preserved. Schools are the primary places in which children of various cultures learn about the mainstream culture. *Additive acculturation* empowers individuals to empowerment expand their life choices, building their lives in a second culture and language on the foundation of their first language and culture. How much a person seeks to add of the target culture is a personal choice; schools should not attempt to force students to assimilate.

Accommodation A two-way process, *accommodation* involves adaptations by members of the mainstream culture in response to a minority culture, who in turn accept some cultural change in adapting to the mainstream. Thus, accommodation is a mutual process. To make accommodation a viable alternative in schools, teachers need to demonstrate that they are receptive to learning from the diverse cultures in their midst.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Accommodating Students' Culture

[I]n non-[American]-Indian classes students are given opportunities to ask the teacher questions in front of the class, and do so. Indian students are given fewer opportunities for this because when they do have the opportunity, they don't use it. Rather, the teacher of Indians allows more periods in which she is available for individual students to approach her alone and ask their questions where no one else can hear them.

Source: Philips, 1972, p. 383

Biculturalism Being able to function successfully in two cultures constitutes biculturalism. Darder (1991) defined *biculturalism* as

a process wherein individuals learn to function in two distinct sociocultural environments: their primary culture, and that of the dominant mainstream culture of the society in which they live. It represents the process by which bicultural human beings mediate between the dominant discourse of educational institutions and the realities they must face as members of subordinate cultures. (pp. 48–49)

Everyone is to some extent bicultural. At a minimum level, everyone who works outside the home functions daily in two cultures—personal (home) and professional (work). For some individuals, the distance between the cultures of work and home are almost indistinguishable, whereas for others the separation is great. For example, Native American children who were sent to Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools often experienced great difficulties in adjusting to the disparate cultures of home and school.

What is it like to be bicultural in the United States? Bicultural people are sometimes viewed with distrust. Even parents may feel threatened by their bicultural children. Appalachian families who moved to large cities to obtain work often pressured their children to maintain an agrarian, preindustrial lifestyle, a culture that is in many ways inconsistent with urban environments. Similarly, families from rural Mexico may seek to maintain traditional values even as their children adopt behaviors from the macroculture. The process of becoming bicultural is not without stress, especially for students who are expected to internalize dissimilar, perhaps conflicting values.

Psychological and Social–Emotional Issues Involving Cultural Contact

Phases of Acculturation Reactions to a new culture vary, but there are distinct stages of emotional ups and downs in the process of experiencing a different culture: Typical emotions and behaviors begin with elation or excitement, move to anxiety or disorientation, and culminate in some degree of adjustment. Students go through these same emotional stages, with varied intensity depending on the degree of similarity between home and school cultures, the individual child, and the teacher.

The first state, *euphoria* or the *honeymoon period*, may result from the excitement of and fascination with the customs, foods, and sights of the new culture. The next stage, *culture shock* or *cultural fatigue*, may follow as the newcomer is increasingly frustrated by disorienting cultural cues. Deprivation of the familiar may cause a loss of self-esteem, depression, anger, or withdrawal. The severity of this shock will vary as a function of the personality of the individual, the emotional support available, and the perceived or actual differences between the two cultures.

The final stage, *adjustment* or *adaptation* to the new culture, can take months or years. Ideally, the newcomer borrows habits, customs, and characteristics from the new culture, resulting in a feeling of comfort in negotiating everyday activities such as going to school and shopping. On the other hand, individuals who do not adjust may feel lonely, frustrated, and repulsed by aspects of the new culture. Eventually, successful adaptation results in newcomers being able to actively express themselves and to create a full range of meaning in the situation.

In the classroom, students may show culture shock as withdrawal, depression, or anger. Mental fatigue may result from continually straining to comprehend the new culture. Individuals may need time to process personal and emotional as well as academic experiences. The teacher must take great care to not belittle or reject a student who is experiencing culture shock.

Resolving Problems of Cultural Contact

Students experiencing cultural conflict may meet racism and anti-immigration sentiment and behaviors ranging from subtle innuendos to verbal abuse and threats, even physical violence. Schools are crucial to the resolution of hate crime because the young are perpetrators and the schools are staging grounds. Policies, curricula, and antiracism programs are needed to moderate conflicts when cultures come into contact.

The Culturally Sustaining School In general, research suggests that substantive changes in attitudes, behaviors, and achievement occur only when the entire school adopts a multicultural atmosphere. In such schools, all students learn to understand cultures different from their own. Minority students do not internalize negativity about their culture and customs; instead, they are motivated to feel proud of their home culture and wish to participate in, and sustain, its customs and language.

Language and/or culture shock can have negative effects on a student's personality and motivation to learn. A student may have left close friends and beloved family members to immigrate to a new country, and being unable to communicate clearly or fluently in a second language, may feel lonely and isolated. Conversely, if a child is overprotected by the immigrant family, it may be more difficult to leave that family circle to make friends in a new world. "Gentle acculturation" may be a useful term to describe this process.

Classroom organization may soften the effects of linguistic and cultural isolation. Cooperative learning groups and programs that allow interaction between students of diverse backgrounds usually result in improved academic achievement. When the languages and cultures of students are highly evident in their schools and teachers refer to them explicitly, they gain status. Schools that convey the message that all cultures are of value—by displaying explicit welcome signs in many languages, by attempts to involve parents, by a deliberate curriculum of inclusion, and by using affirmative action to promote hiring of a diverse faculty—help to maintain an atmosphere that reduces interethnic conflict.

Strategies for Conflict Resolution Interethnic conflict is disruptive; but if such incidents occur, immediate, proactive steps to resolve the conflict are necessary. Conflicts in schools may include students' teasing, gossip, online bullying, and physical aggression whether in the classroom, lunchroom, library, school bus, or playground. Teaching young people how to resolve conflict in a peaceful way can help reduce violence and increase interpersonal cooperation. Conflict-resolution education attempts to instill problem-solving skills among students and provide ways to find acceptable solutions to disagreements to resolve conflicts in nonviolent ways.

Educators have identified conflict-resolution strategies that can be used in a variety of school-based settings. Two of these include peer mediation (student trained to negotiate peaceably with other students) and the peaceable classroom approach, which integrates conflict resolution into the daily curriculum and overall management of the classroom. Many schools have adopted the peaceable school approach, which creates an environment where everyone works together toward conflict resolution, including students, teachers, and administrators to ensure that the entire school remains watchful of possible conflicts.

Rutgers University's Center for Negotiation and Conflict Resolution (CNCR) webpage features links to more than twenty-five resources, which includes a primer on handling disruptive behavior, ways to coach children on handling everyday conflicts, an overview of peer mediation techniques, and a sample curriculum unit on conflict resolution.

Perhaps the best way to prevent conflict is to include a variety of cultural content and make sure the school recognizes and values cultural diversity. If conflict does occur, however, there are means to prevent its escalation. Teachers should be ready with conflict resolution techniques before they are actually needed.

BEST PRACTICE Resolving Conflicts in the Classroom

- To defuse a problem:
 - ✓ Talk to students privately, encouraging the sharing of perceptions on volatile issues.
 - ✓ Communicate expectations that students will be able to resolve their differences.
- If confrontation occurs:
 - ✓ Resolve to be calm in the face of verbalized anger and hostility.
 - ✓ Set aside a brief period for verbal expression.
 - ✓ Allow students to vent feelings as a group.
 - ✓ Do not tolerate violence or personal attacks.

Programs that teach about “group differences,” involve exhortation or mere verbal learning, or are designed merely to “reduce prejudice” are usually not effective, because to achieve a long-term change in attitudes, a change in behavior must come first. Schools that are committed to increasing intercultural communication can make cultural contact a positive experience for everyone involved.

Cultural Diversity in the United States

The Demographics of Change

Throughout the United States, 17.1 percent of the U. S. population of 325.7 million speaks a language other than English at home (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018). Although the largest percentage of non-English speakers (37 percent) lives in the West, English learners and their families are increasingly living in places such as the Midwest (9 percent) and the South (15 percent) that have not previously needed to hire ELD teachers. The majority of English learners in the United States are Spanish speaking (41.9 million).

According to the 2013 American Community Survey (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013), of children ages five to seventeen in the U. S., more than one in five speaks a foreign language at home: 45 percent in California, roughly 35 percent in Texas, 30 percent in Nevada and New York, and 27 percent in Florida and Arizona. Rather than being concentrated in a few areas, English learners are spread throughout the United States: in Georgia, North Carolina, Virginia, Nebraska, and Delaware, the figure is about 14 percent; and in Kansas, Utah, Minnesota, and Idaho, about 12 percent. Of the children speaking a language other than English in the home, 44 percent were born in the United States. More than three-quarters of English learners speak Spanish in schools, followed by Vietnamese, Hmong, Korean, Arabic, and Haitian Creole at less than 2 percent each. The numbers of Spanish, Chinese, and Arabic speakers have increased the most since the 2010 census (Camarota & Zeigler, 2014) (see Table 9.3).

English learners in U.S. schools in 2014–2015 numbered 4,800,000—one of every ten children. Los Angeles Unified School District led all other school districts in the nation in the

TABLE 9.3 States with the Highest Number and Percent of Population of English Learners (2012–2013)

State	Population of English Learners	Percent of the State's School Population
California	1,521,772	24.5
Texas	773,732	15.2
Florida	277,802	10.3
New York	237,499	8.8
Illinois	190,172	9.3
Colorado	114,415	13.3
Washington	107,307	10.2
North Carolina	102,311	6.8
Virginia	99,897	7.9
Georgia	94,034	5.5

Source: Ruiz Soto, Hooker, & Batalova, 2015b.

number of English learners (145,983 in 2014–2015) and the percent of total enrollment (22.6 percent), followed by the public school districts of Dallas, Texas; Houston, Texas; Fairfax County, Virginia; San Diego, California; Santa Ana, California; Fort Worth, Texas; and Denver, Colorado (U.S. Department of Education, n.d.).

These population demographics indicate that all states need to provide services for English learners, with the need greatest in such states as California, Texas, Virginia, Florida, and Colorado, serving Hispanics or Asian/Pacific Islanders. The linguistic and cultural variety of English learners suggests that more and more teachers use ELD strategies and methods to serve as intercultural and interlinguistic educators—those who can reach out to learners from a variety of backgrounds and offer effective learning experiences.

Migration and Immigration in the United States

The United States has historically been a nation of immigrants, but the nature and causes of immigration have changed over time. The earliest settlers to the east coast of North America came from England and Holland, whereas those to the south and west came mainly from Spain. In the early eighteenth century, these settlers were joined by involuntary immigrants—slaves from Africa. The social upheavals and overpopulation that characterized nineteenth-century Europe and Asia brought more than 14 million immigrants to the United States in the forty-year period between 1860 and 1900. Immigration from the Pacific Rim countries was constrained by severe immigration restrictions until the last decades of the twentieth century.

However, imperialistic policies of the United States, primarily the conquest of the Philippines, Puerto Rico, Hawaii, and the Pacific Islands, caused large influxes of these populations throughout the twentieth century. The wars in Southeast Asia and Central America in the 1970s and 1980s led to increased emigration from these areas. In the twenty-first century, global population pressures and geographic proximity to U.S. borders are reflected in the origins of the top immigrants: Mexico, India, China, and the Philippines. Whereas in the 1990s,

TABLE 9.4 Continent of Origin of Immigrants to the United States 2000–2016

Continent of Origin	Number of Immigrants	Percent of Total
Central America*	15,028,973	34.4
Caribbean*	4,286,266	9.8
South America	2,979,491	6.8
Asia	13,461,081	30.8
Africa	2,141,197	4.9
Europe	4,785,267	10.9
Oceania and Australia	265,863	.01
Canada	783,026	.02
Other	7,737	<.01
Total	43,738,901	97.6

*For purposes of this table, Central America and the islands in the Caribbean are distinct from the rest of North America.

Source: Migration Policy Institute, 2018.

immigrants arrived from all over the world, in 2016, 53 percent of all 43,738,901 legal immigrants in the United States came from just eight countries—Mexico, India, People’s Republic of China, the Philippines, Vietnam, El Salvador, Cuba, and South Korea (Migration Policy Institute, 2018). Table 9.4 offers a glimpse of the parts of the world from which immigrants to the United States originate.

Immigrants have come to the United States for a variety of reasons: the desire for adventure and economic gain in a new world, the need to flee religious and political persecution, or as a result of forcible abduction. Factors involve both attractive forces (pull) and expulsive forces (push). Later, U.S. foreign policy created connections with populations abroad that pulled certain groups to the United States. For example, the conquest of the Philippines at the turn of the century eventually resulted in significant Philippine immigration to the United States.

Immigration laws responded to both push and pull factors throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, at times curtailing emigration from specific regions and at other times allowing increased immigration. Once in the United States, both immigrants and natives have historically been restless populations. Much of the history of the United States consists of the migration of groups from one part of the country to another.

Contemporary Causes of Migration and Immigration

Migration is an international phenomenon. Throughout the world, populations are dislocated by war, famine, civil strife, economic change, persecution, and other factors. The United States has been a magnet for immigrants seeking greater opportunity and economic stability. Politics and religion as well as economics provide reasons for emigration. U.S. domestic and foreign policies affect the way in which groups of foreigners are accepted. Changes in immigration policy, such as amnesty, affect the number of immigrants who enter the country each year.

Economic Factors The great disparity in the standard of living attainable in the United States compared with that of many developing countries makes immigration attractive.

Self-advancement is uppermost in the minds of many immigrants and acts as a strong incentive despite the economic exploitation often endured by immigrants (e.g., lower wages, exclusion from desirable jobs). Immigrants may bring with them unique skills. On the whole, however, the economy of the United States does not have an unlimited capacity to employ immigrants in specialized niches.

Immigration policy has corresponded with the cycles of boom and bust in the U.S. economy. The Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 stopped immigration from China to the United States because of the concern that Chinese labor would flood the market. The labor shortage in the western United States that resulted from excluding the Chinese had the effect of welcoming Japanese immigrants who were good farm laborers. Later, during the Great Depression of the 1930s, with a vast labor surplus in the United States, the U.S. Congress severely restricted Philippine immigration, and policies were initiated to “repatriate” Mexicans back across the border.

When World War II transformed the labor surplus of the 1930s into a severe worker shortage, the United States and Mexico established the Bracero Program, a bilateral agreement allowing Mexicans to cross the border to work on U.S. farms and railroads. However, despite the economic attractiveness of the United States, now, as then, most newcomers to this society experience a period of economic hardship (see Box 9.1).

BOX 9.1

Find Out More about Economic Factors

The website U.S. Immigration Facts (www.rapidimmigration.com/usa/1_eng_immigration_facts.html) provides general facts about recent U.S. immigration and then discusses immigrant entrepreneurs and economic characteristics of immigrants.

Political Factors Repression, civil war, and change in government create a push for emigration from foreign countries, whereas political factors within the United States produce a climate of acceptance for some political refugees and not for others. After the Vietnam War, many refugees were displaced in Southeast Asia. Some sense of responsibility for their plight caused the U.S. government to accept many of these people into the United States, such as Cambodians who cooperated with the U.S. military: 6,300 Khmer in 1975; 10,000 Cambodians in 1979; and 60,000 Cambodians between 1980 and 1982. In the 1980s, civil war caused the displacement of 600,000 Salvadorans, nearly 200,000 of whom were admitted to the United States through the Deferred Enforced Departure program.

Other populations, such as Haitians claiming political persecution, have been turned away from U.S. borders. U.S. policy did not consider them to be victims of political repression but rather of economic hardship—a fine distinction, in many cases, and here one might suspect that racial issues in the United States make it more difficult for them to immigrate. It would seem, then, that the grounds for political asylum—race, religion, nationality, membership in a particular social group, political opinion—can be clouded by confounding factors.

Religion complicates the political picture; many eastern European Jews, forced to emigrate because of anti-Semitic pogroms in the nineteenth century, came to the United States in great numbers. Unfortunately, during the 1930s and 1940s, Jews persecuted by Nazis were not free to emigrate or were not accepted as immigrants and were killed. Under the communist regime in the former USSR, Russian Jews were allowed to emigrate in small numbers and were accepted into the United States. Current immigration policies permit refugees to be accepted

on the basis of religion if the applicant can prove that persecution comes from the government or is motivated by the government.

In sum, people are pushed to the United States because of political instability or unfavorable political policies in their home countries. Political conditions within the United States affect whether immigrants are accepted or denied.

Family Unification The risks associated with travel to the New World have made immigration a male-dominated activity since the early settlement of North America. For example, today's Mexican immigrant population consists largely of young men who have come to the United States without their families to work. However, once settled, immigrants seek to bring family members. Thus, a primary motivation for many applications to the Bureau of Citizenship and Immigration Services (BCIS) in the Department of Homeland Security is family unification.

However, recent political discourse from anti-immigration nativists has called for an end to the policy of family reunification, naming this practice "chain migration"; instead, they want to replace it with a policy based on "worth," as defined by legal preference for immigrants having advanced education degrees or economic capital. This is an example of the way language influences politics.

Migration Within the United States Today, many immigrants are sponsored by special-interest groups such as churches and civic organizations that invite them to reside in the local community. Once here, however, some groups find conditions too foreign to their former lives and eventually make a *secondary migration* to another part of the United States. For example, a group of Hmong families sponsored by Lutheran charities spent two years in the severe winter climate of the Minneapolis area before resettling in California. Hispanics, on the other hand, are migrating from cities in the Southwest, New York, and Miami toward destinations in the Midwest and middle South. California, which had attracted a large percentage of these immigrants, has declined as the preferred destination of many immigrants, who find economic opportunities increasing elsewhere in the United States.

U.S. Immigration Laws and Policies Economic cycles in the United States have affected immigration policies, liberalizing them when workers were needed and restricting access when jobs were scarce. These restrictive immigration policies were often justified using overtly racist arguments.

The immigration laws of the 1920s (the National Origins Acts of 1924 and 1929) banned most Asian immigration and established quotas that favored northwestern European immigrants. The quota system, however, did not apply to Mexico and the rest of the Western Hemisphere. In 1943, Congress symbolically ended the Asian exclusion policy by granting ethnic Chinese a token quota of 100 immigrants a year. The Philippines and Japan received similar tiny quotas after the war.

The Immigration and Nationality Act Amendments of 1965 brought about vast changes in immigration policy by abolishing the national origins quota system and replacing it with a seven-category preference system for allocating immigrant visas, a system that emphasizes family ties and occupation. Although there is a per-country limit for these preference immigrants, certain countries are "oversubscribed" and hopefuls are on long waiting lists (People's Republic of China, India, Mexico, and the Philippines). An additional provision in the 1965 act was the diversity immigrant category, in which 55,000 immigrant visas can be awarded each fiscal year to permit immigration opportunities for persons from countries other than the principal sources of current immigration to the United States.

Immigration is a political and social “hot button” in the United States. Many conservative leaders in Congress have voiced their opposition to immigration reform measures that would feature pathways to citizenship and guest worker programs. Other leaders believe that immigration policy reform is necessary to stabilize border security and provide economic security.

In the first year of the Trump administration (2017–2018), changes in immigration laws were instituted to deny entry to the United States to denizens of selected Arab countries suspected of fostering terrorism. Moreover, the Trump administration sought to rescind the Temporary Protected Status law for eligible Salvadorians fleeing El Salvador because of deadly violence from the ongoing civil war (the status had also been granted to other nationalities such as Honduran and Haitian) (see Zablah, 2017). In many communities, political changes to immigration laws are not abstract when fear of incarceration and deportation stalk community members who fear family separation and possible return to the devastation and violence they thought they had left behind.

Legal Status Many immigrants are *documented*—legal residents who have entered the United States officially and live under the protection of legal immigration status. Some of these are officially designated *refugees*, with transitional support services and assistance provided by the U.S. government, including most immigrants from Cambodia, Laos, Vietnam, and Thailand. *Undocumented* immigrants are residents without any official status, who often live in fear of being identified and deported.

Being in the United States illegally brings increased instability, fear, and insecurity to school-age children because they and their families are living without the protection, social services, and assistance available to most immigrants. With the passage of the Immigration Reform and Control Act in 1986, however, undocumented children are legally entitled to public education.

Resources Available to Immigrants The immigrant communities themselves have networks of linguistic, financial, and social support, such as the extensive Taiwanese communities of the San Gabriel Valley in Southern California, the Afghan community in the San Francisco Bay area, and the Arab communities of Michigan. These communities have primary-language activities throughout the year, as well as hosting websites for the immigrant community.

Some cities in the United States have declared themselves as “sanctuary cities” to institute policies that shield immigrants from prosecution and deportation by denying “detainer” requests to cooperate with federal immigration officials regarding a person’s citizenship or immigration status. Such sanctuary cities are not violating federal laws; cities and counties are not required to enforce federal immigration laws in any way (Southern Poverty Law Center, 2018).

The Cultural and Linguistic Challenges of Diversity

No other country in the world faces a diversity challenge as great as that of the United States. At any given time, almost one fifth of the population speaks another language, with issues of primary-language maintenance and loss. New refugees are suffering culture shock, undocumented immigrants are living in fear of apprehension, and other nonresidents are seeking support networks and services. Worse, many immigrants face bias and discrimination.

Issues of Bias and Discrimination in the United States If diversity is recognized as a strength, educators will “avoid basing decisions about learners on inaccurate or stereotypical generalizations” (Manning, 2002, p. 207). Misperceptions about diversity often stem from prejudice, which can be diffused when various groups interact and come to know one another more deeply. But discrimination also stems from fear; dominant groups are afraid to lose power, and they benefit from the disadvantage of the subordinated.

The United States is a diverse country, with vast disparities among its residents in social class, age, gender, occupation, education level, geographic isolation, race, U.S.-born versus immigrant status, sexual orientation, and handicapping condition. As long as schools privilege some students and subordinate others based not on an individual’s gifts and talents but on external social factors, schools will not represent level playing fields.

The Dynamics of Prejudice One factor that inhibits intercultural communication is prejudice, which takes various forms: excessive pride in one’s ethnic heritage, country, or culture so that others are viewed negatively; ethnocentrism, in which the world revolves around oneself and one’s own culture; prejudice against members of a certain racial group; and stereotypes that label all or most members of a group. All humans are ethnocentric to some degree, but when people “prejudge” others on the basis of stereotypes, discriminatory practices and inequalities may result.

A closer look at various forms of prejudice, such as racism and stereotyping, as well as resulting discriminatory practice, can lead to an understanding of these issues. Teachers can then be in a position to adopt educational methods that are most likely to reduce prejudice.

Racism The view that one race is superior to another is racism. For example, one sixteenth-century justification for genocide in the New World stated that Native Americans were not human. Racism can also involve cultural ideas that the traditions, beliefs, language, artifacts, music, and art of other cultures are inferior. On the basis of such concepts, racists justify discriminating against or scapegoating other groups. Racism may be expressed in hate crimes, which are public expressions of hostility directed at specific groups or individuals (harassment, scrawling graffiti on people’s homes, burning crosses on lawns, etc.) or, at the extreme, assaults and murder directed toward minorities.

Frustrated, marginally employed, and poorly educated underclass of disenchanted youth in the United States are sometimes susceptible to hate groups who seek out scapegoats to harass such as immigrants, particularly those of color. The availability of information on the Internet has unfortunately encouraged sites that foment racial hatred. Schools are often prime sites where hate crimes are committed. This fact underscores the urgency of educators’ efforts to understand and combat racism.

Stereotypes Often resulting from racist beliefs, stereotypes are preconceived and oversimplified generalizations about a particular group, race, or gender. The danger of stereotyping is that people are not considered as individuals but are categorized with all other members of a group. A person might believe that a racial group has a global trait and subsequently everyone from that group is judged in this stereotypical way. Conversely, a person might judge an entire group on the basis of an experience with a single individual. Whether positive or negative, a stereotype results in a distorted perspective.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Educating Against a Stereotype

Mrs. Abboushi, a third-grade teacher, discovers that her students hold many misconceptions about the Arab people. To present an accurate and more rounded view of the Arab world, she has students read *Ibrahim* (Sales, 1989), *The Day of Ahmed's Secret* (Heide & Gilliland, 1990), and *Nadia, the Willful* (Alexander, 1983).

After reading and interactively discussing the books, students are divided into groups. Each group is assigned a different book. Students prepare a Cultural Feature Analysis chart that includes the cultural features, setting, character and traits, family relationships, and message of their book. Groups share their information and Mrs. Abboushi records the information on a large summary chart. During the follow-up discussion, students discover that not all Arabs live the same way, dress the same way, or look the same way. They recognize the merging of traditional and modern worlds and the variability in living conditions, customs and values, architecture, clothing, and modes of transportation.

Source: Diamond & Moore, 1995, pp. 229–230

Teaching Against Racism Students and teachers alike must raise awareness of racism in the attempt to achieve racial equality and justice. Actively listening to students in open discussion about racism, prejudice, and stereotyping can increase teachers' understanding of how students perceive and are affected by these concepts. School curricula can be used to help students be aware of the existence and impact of racism. Science and health teachers can debunk myths surrounding the concept of race. Content area teachers can help students develop skills in detecting bias.

BEST PRACTICE

Antiracist Activities and Discussion Topics

- Discuss with your class the origins of racism and why people hold racial prejudices and stereotypes.
- Use critical media literacy to help students spot racist images in the language and illustrations of books, films, television, news media, and advertising.
- Explain the concept of microaggressions, overt or inadvertent ways that racism, classism, or ableism is conveyed through verbal or nonverbal interaction.
- Brainstorm with students specific ways of developing positive contact experiences with those who differ from them in culture, age, gender, etc.
- Look up the United Nations *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* and discuss with students the importance of universal human rights and respect for human dignity.

Programs to Combat Prejudice and Racism The Southern Poverty Law Center distributes *Teaching Tolerance* magazine, a free resource sent to more than 600,000 educators twice a year that provides antibias strategies for K–12 teachers. The Tolerance.org website, a Web project of the Southern Poverty Law Center (available at www.splcenter.org), is an informative resource for disseminating information on the advantages of diversity, with teachers' pages featuring articles, films and books to order, lesson ideas, and a forum in which to share ideas with other teachers including *101 Tools for Tolerance* and *Parenting for Tolerance*.

Institutional Racism Classroom teaching that aims at detecting and reducing racism may be a futile exercise when the institution itself—the school—promotes racism through its policies and practices, such as underreferral of minority students to programs for gifted students or failing to hire minority teachers in classrooms where children are predominantly of minority background. There may be no intent to discriminate on the part of an institution such as a school; however, interactions with minority students may reflect unquestioned negative assumptions about the abilities or participation of these students.

Teachers do not have to look far to encounter educational practices that are imbued with racial, ethnic, and class privilege. How does one identify institutional racism? One way is to profile the racial and ethnic composition of school staff, of academic “tracks,” and of school activities. The following questions help to clarify the issue of institutional racism:

- Do the racial demographics of the teaching staff match those of the students?
- As English learners come to school, do they meet only maintenance personnel and cafeteria workers who speak their language?
- Does the school offer English learners equal access to an academic curriculum, including classes for the gifted and talented?
- Does the school provide equality in resources to support and enrich learning for all students?
- Do school clubs recruit effectively from all races and cultures of the student body, or are English learners segregated into “culture” clubs while native speakers of English staff the more high-status activities such as the school yearbook, newspaper, and student leadership clubs?
- Are family members of all students provided equal opportunities for involvement in school-level activities, or is the only parent organization available designed for middle-class parents who are English literate and have flexible work schedules that enable them to participate in school functions and fundraisers during the school day?

Classism In the United States, racism is compounded by classism, discrimination against the poor. Although this classism is often directed against linguistic and cultural minorities—in the American imagination, a typical poor person is urban, Black, and young—portraying poverty that way makes it easier to stigmatize the poor (Henwood, 1997).

Classism has engendered its own stereotype against poor European Americans—for example, the stereotyped White indigent who is called, among other things, “white trash” (“the white trash stereotype serves as a useful way of blaming the poor for being poor”) (Wray & Newitz, 1997, p. 1). Poor Whites, who outnumber poor minorities, may bear the brunt of a castelike status in the United States as much as do linguistic and cultural minorities.

Discrimination Actions that limit the social, political, or economic opportunities of particular race, language, culture, gender, and/or social-class groups and legitimize the unequal distribution of power and resources comprise discrimination. Blatant, legally sanctioned discrimination may be a thing of the past, but de facto segregation continues—most students of color are still found in substandard schools, taught by faculty who have less experience and academic preparation, do not share the ethnic background of their students, and may not interact well with these students. These teachers may communicate low expectations to minority students.

In the past, those in power often used physical force to discriminate. Those who did not go along were physically punished for speaking their native language or adhering to their own cultural or ethnic customs. With the spread of literacy, discrimination took the form of internalized shame and guilt, leading minorities to become ashamed of their parents and origins.

Skutnabb-Kangas (1981) cited a variety of examples of this *symbolic-structural violence* against minority students in Swedish and Norwegian schools:

The headmaster said, “You have a name which is difficult for us Swedes to pronounce. Can’t we change it?” “Well, I suppose I’d better change it,” I thought. (p. 316)

I love my parents and I respect them but what they are and everything they know counts for nothing. (p. 317)

Students experiencing racism and anti-immigration sentiment from peers in their environment, together with the increasing involvement of young adults on and off campus in supporting prejudice, is a disturbing trend on today’s campuses. Policies, curricula, and antiracism programs are needed to prevent and control hate crimes. Hand in hand with sanctions for such negative behavior, students need training in intercultural communication.

Fighting for Fairness and Equal Opportunity Schools in the United States have not been level playing fields for those of nonmainstream cultures. Teachers can remedy this in both academic and extracurricular areas. According to Manning (2002), teachers should

consider that all learners deserve, ethically and legally, equal access to curricular activities (e.g., higher-level mathematics and science subjects) and opportunities to participate in all athletic activities (e.g., rather than assuming all students of one race will play on the basketball team and all students of another race will play on the tennis or golfing teams). (p. 207)

Cultural fairness can extend to the social and interpersonal lives of students, those daily details and microinteractions that also fall within the domain of culture. Teachers who invest time in getting to know their students, as individuals as well as cultural beings, address issues of fairness through a personal commitment to equality of treatment and opportunity.

Intercultural Communication

Exchange that takes place between individuals of different cultures is known as *intercultural communication*. Channels of communication are verbal and nonverbal.

Cultural Diversity in Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal communication is just as important as verbal interaction; however, educators are oriented toward verbal means of expression and less likely to accord importance to “silent language.” However, more than 65 percent of the social meaning of a typical two-person exchange is carried by nonverbal cues (Birdwhistell, 1974). Physical appearance is an important dimension of the nonverbal code during initial encounters. Body movements, gestures, and facial expressions can enhance a message or constitute a message in itself. *Paralanguage*, the nonverbal elements of the voice, is a primary aspect of speech that can affirm or belie a verbal message. *Proxemics*, the communication of interpersonal distance, varies widely across cultures. Last but not least, *olfactics*—the study of interpersonal communication by means of smell—constitutes a factor that is powerful yet often overlooked.

Body Language The way one holds and positions oneself—one’s body language—is a significant way a teacher communicates authority in the classroom. To become the focus of attention, a teacher stands in front of the room; by passing from desk to desk while students are working, he or she communicates individual attention to students’ needs. In turn, students convey that they are paying attention with eyes up front; if they act industrious (busily writing

or quietly reading a book), they are often seen as more effective academically. Thus, body language helps to shape and maintain one's image in the eyes of others.

In a parent conference, however, cultural differences in body language may impede communication. In traditional cultures, a guest is formally ushered into the classroom and not merely waved in with a flick of the hand. Parents from a culture that offers elaborate respect for the teacher may become uncomfortable if the teacher slouches, moves his or her chair too intimately toward the parent, or otherwise compromises the formal nature of the interchange. In contrast, welcoming body language enhances communication.

Gestures and Facial Expressions Expressive motions or actions made with hands, arms, head, or even the whole body are culturally based signs that are often misunderstood. "Yes" is generally signaled by a nod of the head, but in some cultures a shake of the head means "yes." This can be particularly unnerving for teachers if they constantly interpret the students' headshakes as rejection rather than affirmation. Facial expressions are also easily misinterpreted. Through the use of eyebrows, eyes, cheeks, nose, lips, tongue, and chin, people nonverbally signal any number of emotions, opinions, and moods. Although some facial expressions of happiness, sadness, anger, fear, surprise, disgust, and interest appear to be universal across cultures, other expressions are learned.

Eye Contact Another communication device that is highly variable and frequently misunderstood is eye contact. Both insufficient and excessive eye contact create feelings of unease. Generally, children in European American culture are taught to look people in the eye when addressing them. In some cultures, however, children learn that respect is conveyed by looking down when addressed, and a teacher may incorrectly interpret a student's downcast eyes as an admission of guilt. The teacher may need to explain to the student that in English the rules of address call for different behavior.

Distance Between Speakers Personal space is an aspect of social customs that differs according to cultural experience. Personal space varies: In some cultures, individuals touch one another frequently and maintain high degrees of physical contact; in other cultures, touch and proximity cause feelings of tension and embarrassment. The following incident and thousands of others that may be unpredictable, puzzling, uncomfortable, or even threatening occur in situations in which cultural groups come into contact.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Personal Space

"Teacher," Maria said to me as the students went out for recess. "Yes, Maria?" I smiled at this lively Venezuelan student and we launched into conversation. The contents of this talk are now lost on me, but not the actions. For as we talked, we slowly moved, she forward, me backward, until I was jammed up against the chalkboard. And there I remained for the rest of the conversation, feeling more and more agitated. She was simply too close.

Because I knew the different cultural norms under which Maria and I were operating—the fact that the requirement for space between interlocutors is greater for me as a North American than for her as a South American—I did not ascribe any negative or aggressive tendencies to her. But knowing the norm difference did not lessen my anxiety. What it afforded me was the knowledge that we were behaving differently and that such differences were normal for our respective groups.

Source: Kathryn Weed quoted in Díaz-Rico & Weed, 2010, p. 264

BEST PRACTICE Accommodating Different Concepts of Personal Space

- If students from the same culture (one with a close personal space) and gender have a high degree of physical contact and neither seems bothered by this, the teacher does not have to intervene.
- The wise teacher accords the same personal space to students no matter what their culture (e.g., does not touch minority students more or less than mainstream students).
- Students from affluent families should not bring more “stuff” to put in or on their desks than the average student.

Cultural Diversity in Verbal Communication

Whether oral or written, verbal communication constitutes the other half of intercultural interaction. Aside from first- and second-language differences, a world of patterns and practices surrounds oral and written expression.

Diversity in Oral Discourse In learning a second language, students (and teachers) often focus on the form. Frequently ignored are the ways in which that second language is used (see the section on pragmatics in Chapter 1). The culture that underlies each language prescribes distinct patterns and conventions about when, where, and how to use the language. Heath's (1999) *Ways with Words* noted that children in “Trackton,” an isolated African American community in the South, were encouraged to engage in spontaneous verbal play, rich with metaphor, simile, and allusion. In contrast, the children of “Roadville,” a lower-middle-class European-American community in the South, employed language in more restricted ways, perhaps because of habits encouraged by a fundamentalist religious culture.

Using language to satisfy material needs, control the behavior of others, get along with others, express one's personality, find out about the world, create an imaginative world, or communicate information seems to be universal among language users. How these social functions are accomplished, however, varies greatly among cultures. For example, when accidentally bumping someone, Americans, Japanese, Koreans, and Filipinos would say, “Excuse me” or “Pardon me.” The Chinese, however, would give an apologetic look. Within a family, Latinos often say “thank you” nonverbally for acts of service, whereas European-American children are taught that a spoken “thank you” is necessary, especially to a family member.

The Role of Silence People throughout the world employ silence in communicating. Silence can in fact speak loudly and eloquently. The silence of a parent in front of a guilty child is more powerful than any ranting or raving. As with other language uses, however, silence differs dramatically across cultures. In the U.S. mainstream culture, silence is interpreted as expressing embarrassment, regret, obligation, criticism, or sorrow. In Asian cultures, silence is a token of respect. Particularly in the presence of the elderly, being quiet honors their wisdom and expertise. Silence can also be a marker of personal power. In many Eastern cultures, women view their silent role as a symbol of control and self-respect. In many Native American cultures, silence is used to create and communicate rapport in ways that language cannot.

**CLASSROOM GLIMPSE****The Role of Silence**

In a research project that took place in several Oglala Sioux classrooms, a central factor involved the withdrawal of the Sioux students. Teachers were faced with unexpectedly intense, sometimes embarrassingly long periods of silence. They cajoled, commanded, badgered, and pleaded with students, receiving an inevitable monosyllabic or nonverbal response. Yet outside the classroom, these children were noisy, bold, and insatiably curious. The lack of verbal response from students frustrated teachers. The solution? The teachers involved themselves in the daily life of the community and reduced the isolation of the school from the values of the community. They went so far as to locate classrooms in community buildings. In a different context, students were more willing participants.

Source: Dumont, 1972

The Nature of Questions Intercultural differences exist in asking and answering questions. In middle-class European-American culture, children are exposed early on to their parents' questioning. While taking a walk, for example, a mother will ask, "See the squirrel?" and later, "Is that a squirrel? Where did that squirrel go?" It is obvious to both parent and child that the adult knows the answer to these questions. The questions are asked to stimulate conversation and to train children to focus attention and display knowledge. In the Inuit culture, on the other hand, adults do not question children or call their attention to objects and events in order to name them (Crago, 1993).

Responses to questioning differ across cultures as well. Students from non-Western cultures may be reluctant to attempt an answer to a question if they do not feel they can answer absolutely correctly. These students may not share the European American value of answering questions to the best of their ability regardless of whether that "best" answer is absolutely correct.

Discourse Styles Cultures may differ in ways that influence conversations: the words or phrases that open and close conversations, how people take turns, or the way messages are repaired to make them understandable. Those who have traveled to a foreign country recognize that a small interaction such as answering the telephone may have widely varying sequences across cultures. Sometimes callers give immediate self-identification, sometimes not; sometimes greetings are followed with "how are you" sequences. Deviations from these routines may be cause to terminate a conversation in the earliest stages. Differences in discourse customs may be stressful for second-language learners.

**CLASSROOM GLIMPSE****Classroom Discourse Patterns**

Discourse in the classroom can be organized to involve children positively—in ways that are culturally compatible. A group of Hawaiian children, with the help of an encouraging and participating adult, produced group discourse that was co-narrated, complex, lively, imaginative, and well connected. Group work featured twenty-minute discussions of text in which the teacher and students mutually participated in overlapping, volunteered speech and in joint narration (Au & Jordan, 1981). In contrast, Navajo children in a discussion group patterned

their discourse after the adults of their culture. Each Navajo student spoke for an extended period with a fully expressed statement, and other students waited courteously until a clear end was communicated. Then another took a similar turn. In both communities, children tended to connect discourse with peers rather than with the teacher functioning as a central “switch-board.” If the teacher acted as a central director, students often responded with silence.

Source: Tharp, 1989

DID YOU KNOW?

HOW STUDENTS TELL YOU THEY DON'T UNDERSTAND

Arabic (men): *Mish fahem*

Arabic (women): *Mish fahmeh*

Armenian: *Yes chem huskenur*

Chinese (Cantonese): *Ngoh m-ming*

Chinese (Mandarin): *Wo bu dung*

Persian (Farsi): *Man ne'me fah'mam*

Japanese: *Wakarimasen*

Korean: *Juh-neun eehae-haji mot haget-ssum-nida*

Russian: *Ya nye ponimayu*

Spanish: *No comprendo*

Vietnamese: *Toi khong hieu*

In addition to ways to say “I don’t understand” in 230 languages, J. Runner’s webpage has translations in many languages for the following phrases: “Hello, how are you?,” “Welcome,” “Good-bye,” “Please,” “Thank you,” “What is your name?,” “My name is . . .,” “Do you speak English?,” “Yes,” and “No.” There is also a link to Internet language resources; see www.elite.net/~runner/jennifers/understa.htm.

Source: Runner (2000).

Oral Versus Written Language In studying oral societies, researchers have noted that the structure and content of messages tend to be narrative, situational, and oriented toward activity or deeds, although abstract ideas such as moral values are often implicit. In contrast, the style represented by literacy is conceptual rather than situational. Words are separate from the social context of deeds and events, and ideas can be extracted from written texts. In an oral society, learning takes place in groups because narration must have an audience. This contrasts with a literate society, in which reading and writing can be solitary experiences. Separation from the group appears to be one of the burdens of literacy. In an oral society, much reliance is placed on memory, as this is the principal means of preserving practices and traditions.

Cultural Differences in Written Discourse Oracy is the foundation of languages. Written expression is a later development. In fact, of the thousands of reported languages in use, only about three out of four have a written literature. Research has suggested that acquiring literacy involves more than learning to read and write. Thinking patterns, perception, cultural values, communication style, and social organization can be affected by literacy.

Many features of written language have to be learned in school. The style of argumentation, the use of voice and formality level, and the organizational structure employed in writing are unique to each culture. This is a part of acquiring cognitive academic language proficiency.

Strategies for Intercultural Communication in the School and Classroom

Communicating with students from other cultures is more than learning a few phrases in the second language and expecting the students and families to stretch more than halfway. Much can be done to adapt one's communication styles and habits to make others more comfortable and to get one's message across.

Teaching Styles The way teachers are taught to teach is a reflection of the expectations of U.S. culture. Teachers raised in a mainstream culture have elements of that culture embedded in their personal teaching approach. Some of these elements may need to be modified to meet the needs of students from other cultures. As a beginning step, a teacher can examine his or her teaching style to evaluate whether, for example, it is student-centered or subject-centered or whether students are encouraged to work alone or cooperatively.

Even in monocultural classrooms, the teacher's style is more in accordance with some students than with others. Flexibility becomes a key to reaching more students. In a multicultural classroom, this flexibility is even more crucial. With knowledge of various teaching styles, a teacher can examine his or her own style, observe students' reactions to that approach, ask questions about a teacher's expected role and function in the community, and modify teaching style as necessary for different situations.

Teacher–Student Interactions The teacher–student interaction is culturally mandated in general ways, although individuals may vary. Students who have immigrated may bring with them varying notions of teacher–student interactions. For example, in some cultures, learning takes place in an absolutely quiet classroom where the teacher is in complete control and authority is never questioned. In other cultures, students talk among themselves and are able to engage with teachers in cooperative planning. Attitudes toward authority, teacher–student relationships, and teacher expectations of student achievement vary widely. Yet the heart of the educational process is in the interaction between teacher and student. This determines the quality of education the student receives.

Differences in the culture of the teacher and the student may cause miscommunication. Language and word choice are other factors making intercultural communication challenging. Words that may seem harmless in one context may have a subculture connotation. Teachers have to be equally careful both to use appropriate terms of address and reference when communicating with students and to be aware of terms used in the classroom that might have an incendiary effect.

BEST PRACTICE Encouraging Positive Relationships

Although it may appear daunting to be able to accommodate the various teacher–student relations represented by different cultural groups in a classroom, there are several ways teachers can improve rapport with their students:

- Express care and respect equally to all students.
- Openly communicate acceptance of students and be accessible to them.

- In classroom discussions and in private, encourage students to talk about their lives, feelings (including the sometimes tragic details), and expectations for learning.
- Understand that you are not only helping students academically but also that you may be helping families adjust.

Source: Lemberger, 1999

Power and Authority Most students expect power and authority to be vested in the teacher, and teachers expect respect from students. Respect is communicated verbally and nonverbally and is vulnerable to cultural misunderstanding. In the United States, respect is shown to teachers by looking at them, but in some cultures looking at the teacher is a sign of disrespect. Moreover, students are expected to raise their hands in North American classrooms if they wish to ask or answer a question. In many Indochinese cultures such as Vietnamese, in contrast, there is no way for students to signal a desire to talk to a teacher; students speak only after the teacher has spoken to them.

BEST PRACTICE

Understanding Behaviors Related to Power and Authority

- Seek alternative explanations to unexpected behavior rather than interpreting the behavior according to your own cultural framework.
- Ask “Why is this behavior occurring?” Rather than “What is the matter with this child?”

Source: Cushner, 1999, p. 75

Teaching Intercultural Communication

Students are often fascinated by cultural difference. Because this content is not on standardized tests, teachers may be reluctant to spend time on such a topic. However, the “teachable moment” occurs whenever a cultural difference is relevant to a classroom occurrence.

Multicultural literature and other facets of a multicultural curriculum are useful ways to teach about culture. Practicing intercultural communication skills—listening and speaking in a culturally sensitive way—is a daily occurrence.

A classroom bulletin board display area may be put to good use throughout the school year, with one half devoted to cultural artifacts, language, numbering systems, and other external elements of culture. The other half might display key ideas about culture such as ideas about personal space, nonverbal language, and other concepts that students can acquire. This keeps the issue of cultural diversity open and available as food for thought.

Investigating Ourselves as Cultural Beings

Teachers who function as intercultural educators acquire a sense of the difficulties faced by English learners. However, many prospective teachers initially are unaware of their own cultural values and behaviors and how these might be at odds with the home cultures of students.

The most powerful means of learning about culture is studying about ourselves and our own culture. Those who are willing to engage in self-assessment activities are often richly rewarded with a deeper understanding of their professional and personal lives. The goal of such assessment is to enable prospective teachers to sustain intercultural contact, foster culturally

TABLE 9.5 Components of the Personal Dimension of Intercultural Education

Component	Description
Engage in reflective thinking and writing.	Awareness of one's actions, interactions, beliefs, and motivations—such as racism—can catalyze behavioral change.
Explore personal and family histories by interviewing family members.	Exploring early cultural experiences can help teachers better relate to individuals with different backgrounds.
Acknowledge group membership.	Teachers who acknowledge their affiliation with various groups in society can assess how this influences views of and relationships with other groups.
Learn about the experiences of diverse groups by reading or personal interaction.	Learning about the histories of diverse groups—from their perspectives—highlights value differences.
Visit or read about successful teachers.	Successful teachers of children from diverse backgrounds serve as exemplary role models.
Appreciate diversity.	Seeing difference as the norm in society reduces ethnocentrism.
Participate in reforming schools.	Teachers can help reform monocultural institutions.

Source: Adapted from Villegas & Lucas, 2002.

responsive pedagogy, and develop the skills of advocacy for, and appreciation of, English learners. Understanding ourselves builds the foundation for understanding others.

The Personal Dimension

For intercultural educators, self-reflection is vital. By examining their own attitudes, beliefs, and culturally derived beliefs and behaviors, teachers begin to discover what has influenced their value systems. Villegas and Lucas (2002) summarized this self-reflection in seven components (see Table 9.5).

Cultural Self-Study

Self-study is a powerful tool for understanding culture. A way to begin a culture inquiry is by investigating one's personal name. For example, ask, "Where did I get my name? Who am I named for? In which culture did the name originate? What does the name mean?" Continue the self-examination by reviewing favorite cultural customs, such as holiday traditions, home decor, and favorite recipes.

More difficult self-examination questions address the mainstream U.S. values of individual freedom, self-reliance, competition, individualism, and hard work. One can consider the following questions: If someone in authority tells me to do something, do I move quickly or slowly? If someone says, "Do you need any help?" do I usually say, "No, thanks. I can do it myself"? Am I comfortable promoting myself (for example, talking about my achievements in a performance review)? Do I prefer to work by myself or on a team? Do I like to associate with high achievers and avoid spending much time with people who do not work hard?

These and other introspective questions help to pinpoint cultural attitudes. Without a firm knowledge of one's own beliefs and behaviors, it is difficult to contrast the cultural behaviors of others. However, the self-examination process is challenging and ongoing. It is difficult to observe one's own culture (See Box 9.2).

BOX 9.2**Cultural Self-Study: Self-Exploration Questions**

- Describe yourself as a preschool child. Were you compliant, curious, adventure-some, goody-goody, physically active, nature loving? Have you observed your parents with other children? Do they encourage open-ended exploration, or would they prefer children to play quietly with approved toys? Do they encourage initiative?
- What was the knowledge environment like in your home? What type of reading did your father and mother do? Was there a time when the members of the family had discussions about current events or ideas and issues? How much dissent was tolerated from parental viewpoints? Were children encouraged to question the status quo? What was it like to learn to talk and think in your family?
- What kind of a grade school pupil were you? What is your best memory from elementary school? What was your favorite teacher like? Were you an avid reader? How would you characterize your cognitive style and learning style preferences? Was the school you attended ethnically diverse? What about your secondary school experience? Did you have a diverse group of friends in high school?
- What is your ethnic group? What symbols or traditions did you participate in that derived from this group? What do you like about your ethnic identity? Is there a time now when your group celebrates its traditions together? What was the neighborhood or community like in which you grew up?
- What was your experience with ethnic diversity? What were your first images of race or color? Was there a time in your life when you sought out diverse contacts to expand your experience?
- What contact do you have now with people of dissimilar racial or ethnic backgrounds? How would you characterize your desire to learn more? Given your learning style preferences, how would you go about this?

Participating in Growth Relationships

Self-study is only one means of attaining self-knowledge. Teachers who form relationships with individuals whose backgrounds differ from their own, whether teacher colleagues or community members, can benefit from honest feedback and discussions that help to expand self-awareness. Intercultural educators are not free from making mistakes when dealing with students, family and community members, and colleagues whose cultures differ from their own. The only lasting error is not learning from these missteps or misunderstandings.



Exploring culture and cultural diversity is a lifelong endeavor. Many people experience this only after retirement, in traveling around the world as tourists. How lucky intercultural educators are, to be exposed to cultural diversity on a daily basis and have the opportunity to learn intercultural communication as they teach!



Culturally Inclusive Instruction

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter, you should be able to ...

- Explain the role that culture plays in the classroom and school, including ways that teachers can honor students' diversity, make meaningful connections between home and school, help students to accommodate to the cultural of school without loss of their cultural uniqueness, and adapt to ways that students' culture can help or hinder their school success;
- Identify ways that students can learn about multicultural diversity, validate their own cultural identities, and respect the cultures of others;
- Explore students' cultures using ethnography as well as seeking information from students themselves, their families and communities, and Internet resources;
- Describe what makes a classroom culturally inclusive; and
- Acquire the disposition to involve schools and families in meaningful partnerships.

The Role of Culture in the Classroom and School

Culture influences every aspect of school life. Becoming an intercultural educator requires not only specific knowledge about the culture(s) of the students but also general knowledge about how to use that knowledge appropriately in specific contexts. Students from a nonmainstream culture are acquiring a mainstream classroom culture that may differ markedly from their home culture. Intercultural educators who understand students' cultures can then design instruction to meet children's learning needs.

Acknowledging Students' Differences

Imagine a classroom of thirty students, each with just one unique fact, value, or belief included in the more than fifty categories presented in Table 9.2 (“Components of Culture”). Yet this dizzying array of uniqueness is only the tip of the iceberg, because within each of these categories individuals can still differ. Take, for example, the category “food” under “daily life” in Table 9.2. Each student in a classroom of thirty knows a lot about food. What they know, however, depends largely on what they eat every day. Culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students offer educators a rich opportunity for learning about the varieties of values and behaviors that characterize human nature.

Culture includes diversity in values, social customs, rituals, work and leisure activities, health and educational practices, and many other aspects of life. Each of these can affect schooling, as we will discuss, including ways that teachers can respond to these differences in adapting instruction.

The Alignment of Home and School

Teachers who are members of the mainstream culture and have an accommodating vision of cultural diversity recognize that they need to adapt culturally to CLD students, just as these individuals, in turn, accept some cultural change as they adapt to the mainstream. In this mutual process, teachers who model receptiveness to learning from the diverse cultures in their midst help students to see this diversity as a resource.

All the influences that contribute to the cultural profile of the family and community affect the students' reactions to classroom practices. Students whose home culture is consistent with the beliefs and practices of the school are generally more successful in school. However, different cultures organize individual and community behavior in radically different ways—ways that, on the surface, may not seem compatible with school practices and beliefs. To understand these differences is to be able to mediate for the students by helping them bridge relevant differences between the home and the school cultures.

Cultural accommodation is a two-way exchange. Obviously, a single teacher cannot change the culture of an entire school; similarly, families cannot change the deep structure of their values solely for the sake of their children's school success. Flexibility and awareness of cultural differences go a long way toward supporting students and defusing misunderstanding.

The Value System of the Teacher and Cultural Accommodation

Because culture plays such an important role in the classroom and the school, the degree to which home and school are *congruent* can affect the student's learning and achievement. Some of this congruence—the facilitative alignment of the cultures of home and school—depends on what teachers see as important. Because more than 80 percent of teachers represent mainstream culture, the following information contrasts U.S. mainstream values with those that might differ.

What Are Values? Values are “beliefs about how one ought or ought not to behave or about some end state of existence worth or not worth attaining” (Bennett, 2003, p. 64). Values are particularly important to people when they educate their young, because education is a primary means of transmitting cultural knowledge. Parents in minority communities are often vitally interested in their children's education even though they may not be highly visible at school functions.

Values about Time Cultures cause people to lead very different daily lives. These customs are paced and structured by deep habits of using time and space. For example, *time* is organized in culturally specific ways.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Cultural Values About Time

Adela, a Mexican American first-grader, arrived at school about twenty minutes late every day. Her teacher was at first irritated and gradually exasperated. In a parent conference, Adela's mother explained that braiding her daughter's hair each morning was an important time for the two of them to be together, even if it meant being slightly late to school. This family time presented a values conflict with the school's time norms.

Other conflicts may arise when teachers demand abrupt endings to activities in which children are deeply engaged or when events are scheduled in a strict sequence. In fact, schools in the United States are often paced very strictly by clock time, whereas family life in various cultures is not regulated in the same manner. Moreover, teachers often equate speed of performance with intelligence, and standardized tests are often a test of rapidity. Many teachers find themselves in the role of "time mediator"—helping the class adhere to the school's time schedule while working with individual students to help them meet their learning needs within the time allotted.

BEST PRACTICE

Accommodating to Different Concepts of Time and Work Rhythms

- Provide students with choices about their work time and observe how time spent on various subjects accords with students' aptitudes and interests.
- If a student is a slow worker, analyze the work rhythms. Slow yet methodically accurate work deserves respect, but slow and disorganized work may require a peer helper.
- If students are chronically late to school, ask the counselor to meet with the responsible family member to discuss a change in morning routines.

Values about Space The concept and experience of space is another aspect about which values differ according to cultural experience. Just as attitudes toward personal space vary among cultures, a cultural sense of space influences in which rooms and buildings people feel comfortable. Large cavernous classrooms may be overwhelming to students whose family activities are carried out in intimate spaces. The organization of the space in the classroom sends messages to students, such as how free they are to move about the classroom and how much of the classroom they "own." Both the expectations of the students and the needs of the teacher can be negotiated to provide a classroom setting in which space is shared.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

The Textbooks' "Hidden Messages" about Space

Joe Suina discusses the way school textbooks enticed young Native American children to devalue their heritage:

Messages are ever so subtle, yet very powerful. The textbooks I had as a child, for example, that pictured only pitched roofs and straight walls, sidewalks and grass. My world was quite different; it was one of adobe homes, dirt floors, the bare ground, and not a whole lot of vegetation in the yard that I was growing up in. It was a different way of life, a different life-style that was presented clearly as one to be valued over anything else. But because these materials were produced by very educated people, in high gloss, and in the context of being central to the curriculum, they communicated very strongly "the ideal life." As if to say, "This was what you become and get when you get educated, when you finally get civilized! What you have at home now is not good enough!" (Suina, 2011, n.p.)

Values about Dress and Appearance Sometimes values are about externals, such as dress and personal appearance. For example, a third-grade girl wearing makeup is communicating a message that some teachers may consider an inappropriate indicator of premature sexuality, although makeup on a young girl may be acceptable in some cultures.

BEST PRACTICE Culturally Influenced School Dress Codes

- Boys and men in some cultures (rural Mexico, for example) wear hats. Classrooms need to have a place for these hats during class time and provision for wearing the hats during recess.
- Schools that forbid "gang attire" yet permit privileged students to wear such regalia as high school sororities (sweaters with embroidered names, for instance) should forbid clique-related attire for all.
- A family-school council with representatives from various cultures should be responsible for reviewing the school dress code on a yearly basis to see if it meets the needs of various cultures.

Rites, Rituals, and Ceremonies Each culture incorporates expectations about the proper means for carrying out formal events. School ceremonies—for example, assemblies that begin with formal markers such as the Pledge of Allegiance and a flag salute—should have nonstigmatizing alternatives for those whose culture does not permit participation.

Rituals in some elementary classrooms in the United States are relatively informal. For example, students can enter freely before school and take their seats or go to a reading corner or activity center. Students from other cultures may find this confusing if they are accustomed to lining up in the courtyard, being formally greeted by the principal or head teacher, and then invited in their lines to enter their respective classrooms.

A traditional Hawaiian custom involved students chanting outside the classroom door and listening for the teacher's welcome chant from within. In U.S. classrooms, a bell normally rings to start the school day, but individual class periods at the elementary level are not usually set off by formal signals to cue transitions.

BEST PRACTICE Accommodating School Rituals

- Teachers might welcome newcomers with a brief explanation of the degree of formality expected of students.
- School seasonal celebrations are increasingly devoid of political and religious content. The school may, however, permit school clubs to honor events with extracurricular rituals.
- Teachers might observe colleagues from different cultures to view the rituals of family–teacher conferences and adapt their behavior accordingly to address families’ cultural expectations.
- Greeting and welcome behaviors during parent conferences vary across cultures. The sensitive teacher understands how parents expect to be greeted and incorporates some of these behaviors in the exchange.

Values about Work and Leisure Cross-cultural variation in work and leisure activities is a frequently discussed value difference. Many members of mainstream U.S. culture value work over play; that is, one’s status is directly related to one’s productivity, salary, or job description. Play, rather than being an end in itself, is often used in ways that reinforce the status achieved through work. For example, teachers may meet informally at someone’s home to bake holiday dishes, coworkers form bowling leagues, and alumni enjoy tailgate parties before attending football games; one’s work status often governs who is invited to attend these events.

Young people in the mainstream U.S. culture, particularly those in the middle class, are trained to use specific tools of play, and their time is structured to attain skills (e.g., organized sports, music lessons). In contrast, other cultures do not afford children structured time to play but instead expect children to engage in adult-type labor at work or in the home. In still other cultures, such as that of the Hopi Nation in Arizona, children’s playtime is relatively unstructured, and parents do not interfere with play. Cultures also vary in the typical work and play activities expected of girls and of boys. All these values have obvious influence on the ways children work and play at school.

In work and play groups, the orientation may be individual or group. The United States is widely regarded as a society in which the individual is paramount. This individualism often pits students against one another for achievement. In contrast, many Mexican immigrants from rural communities have group-oriented values and put the needs of the community before individual achievement. Families may, for example, routinely pull children from school to attend funerals of neighbors in the community; in mainstream U.S. society, however, children would miss school only for the funerals of close family members.

BEST PRACTICE Accommodating Diverse Ideas about Work and Play

- Many high school students arrange class schedules to work part time. If a student appears chronically tired, a family–teacher conference may be needed to review priorities.
- Many students are overcommitted to extracurricular activities. If grades suffer, students may be well advised to reduce activities to regain an academic focus.
- Out-of-school play activities should not be organized at the school site, such as passing out birthday party invitations that exclude some students.

Values about Medicine, Health, and Hygiene Health and medicine practices involve deep-seated beliefs because the stakes are high: life and death. Each culture has certain beliefs about sickness and health, beliefs that influence the interactions in health care settings. Students may have problems—war trauma, culture shock, poverty, addiction, family violence, crime—that their culture treats in particular culturally acceptable ways. When students come to school with health issues, teachers need to react in culturally compatible ways.

Miscommunication and noncooperation can result when teachers and the family view health and disease differently. For example, community health practices, such as the Cambodian tradition of coining (in which a coin is dipped in oil and then rubbed on a sick person's back, chest, and neck), can be misinterpreted by school officials who, seeing marks on the child, might call Child Protective Services.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Exotic Family Health Practice?

One of Ka's uncles called to explain that his nephew was sick and would miss school another two days. Lenny had read that the Hmong were animists and believed sickness was often caused by evil spirits who lured the soul from the body. Getting well sometimes required an animal sacrifice and a healing ceremony with a shaman who found and returned the runaway soul. Lenny wished the boy well and then asked about the nature and course of Ka's treatment, fully expecting evil spirit, animal sacrifice, and shaman scenarios. "Strep throat," answered the uncle, "but we went to the hospital and got antibiotics."

Source: Cary, 2000, p. 19

BEST PRACTICE

Health and Hygiene Practices

- Families who send sick children to school or, conversely, keep children home at the slightest ache may benefit from a conference with the school nurse.
- All students can profit from explicit instruction in home and school hygiene.

Values about Economics, Law, Politics, and Religion The institutions that support and govern family and community life have an influence on behavior and beliefs. The economic institutions of the United States are diverse, ranging from small business enterprises to large corporate or government agencies. These institutions influence daily life in the United States by means of a complex infrastructure. The families of English learners may fit in anywhere along this continuum.

Interwoven into this rich cultural-economic-political-legal texture are religious beliefs and practices. In the United States, religious practices are heavily embedded but formally bounded—people argue over Christmas trees in public schools but there is almost universal acceptance of increased consumer spending at the close of the calendar year. Religious beliefs underlie other cultures even more fundamentally. Followers of Islam, for example, are accustomed to overt prayer, and may seek to respond publicly to the call to prayer. This contrasts to mainstream U.S. religious beliefs that prayer is a private (non-public) matter.

Some schools respond by providing nondenominational “quiet” rooms to accommodate the periodic need for prayer.

In Islamic traditions, the Koran prescribes proper social relationships and roles for members of society. Immigrants with Confucian religious and philosophical beliefs subscribe to values that mandate a highly ordered society and family through the maintenance of proper social relationships. When immigrants with these religious beliefs encounter the largely secular U.S. institutions, the result may be that customs and cultural patterns are challenged, fade away, or cause conflict within the family (Chung, 1989).

BEST PRACTICE

Accommodating Economic, Legal, Political, and Religious Practices

- On a rotating basis, teachers could be paid to supervise after-school homework sessions for students whose parents are working multiple jobs.
- Schools can legally resist any attempts to identify families whose immigration status is undocumented.
- Schools should not tolerate messages of political partisanship.
- Permission for religious garb or appearance (e.g., Islamic head scarves, Sikh ritual knives, Hassidic dress) should be a part of the school dress code.

Values and Expectations about Education In the past, educational systems were designed to pass on cultural knowledge and traditions, which constituted much the same learning that parents taught their children. Students come to school steeped in the learning practices of their own family and community. However, many of the organizational and teaching practices of the school may not support the type of learning to which students are accustomed.

For example, Indochinese students expect to listen, watch, and imitate. They may be reluctant to ask questions or volunteer answers and may be embarrassed to ask for the teacher’s help or reluctant to participate in individual demonstrations of a skill or project. For immigrant children with previous schooling, experience in U.S. classrooms may engender severe conflicts. Teachers who can accommodate these students’ proclivities can gradually introduce student-centered practices while supporting an initial dependence on the teacher’s direction.

DID YOU KNOW?

OVERCOMING PASSIVITY

Polynesian students newly arrived from the South Pacific may have experienced classroom learning as a relatively passive activity. They expect teachers to give explicit instruction about what to learn and how to learn it. When these students arrive in the United States and encounter teachers who value creativity and student-centered learning, they may appear passive as they wait to be told what to do.

Source: Funaki & Burnett, 1993

BEST PRACTICE**Accommodating Culturally Based Educational Expectations**

Teachers who seek to understand the value of education within the community can do the following:

- Invite classroom guests from the community to share methods for teaching and learning that are used in the home (e.g., modeling and imitation, didactic stories and proverbs, direct verbal instruction).
- Pair children from cultures that expect passive responses to teachers (observing only) with more participatory peers to help the former learn to ask questions and volunteer.
- In communities with a high dropout rate, support the systematic efforts of school counselors and administrators to help families accommodate their beliefs to a more proactive support for school completion and higher education.

Values about Roles and Status Cultures differ in the roles people play in society and the status accorded to these roles. For example, in the Vietnamese culture, profoundly influenced by Confucianism, authority figures are ranked in the following manner: The father ranks below the teacher, who ranks only below the king. Such a high status is not accorded to teachers in U.S. society, where, instead, medical doctors enjoy this type of prestige. Such factors as gender, social class, age, occupation, and education level influence the manner in which status is accorded to various roles. Students' perceptions about the roles possible for them in their culture affect their school performance.

Values about Gender In many cultures, gender is related to social roles in a similar way. Anthropologists have found men to be in control of political and military matters in all known cultures. Young boys tend to be more physically and verbally aggressive and to seek dominance more than girls do. Traditionally, women have had the primary responsibility for child-rearing, with associated tasks, manners, and responsibilities. Immigrants to the United States often come from cultures in which men and women have rigid and highly differentiated gender roles. The gender equality that is an ostensible goal in U.S. classrooms may be difficult for students of these cultures.

**CLASSROOM GLIMPSE****To Mentor or Not to Mentor?**

Chad is a journalism teacher in a large urban high school and the advisor of the school newspaper. Khalia is a young woman who enrolled in a beginning journalism class as a junior. Although English was not her first language, she showed unusual ability and creativity in writing the stories to which she was assigned. Chad routinely advises students on their vocational choice, writes letters of recommendation for them when they apply to college, and encourages those who want to further their education. Khalia has confided in him that her parents have discouraged her from attending college. Khalia does not want to marry immediately after high school and has asked Chad's help in applying to college. Should Chad help Khalia?

BEST PRACTICE Gender-Role Expectations

- Monitor tasks assigned to boys and girls to ensure they are the same.
- Make sure that boys and girls perform equal leadership roles in cooperative groups.
- If families in a given community provide little support for the scholastic achievement of girls, a systematic effort on the part of school counselors and administrators may be needed to help families accommodate their beliefs to a more proactive support for women.

Values about Social Class Stratification by social class differs across cultures. Cultures that are rigidly stratified, such as India's caste system, differ from cultures that are not as rigid or that, in some cases, border on the anarchic, such as continuously war-torn countries. The belief that education can enhance economic status is widespread in the dominant culture of the United States, but individuals in other cultures may not have similar beliefs.

In general, individuals and families at the upper socioeconomic levels are able to exert power by sitting on college, university, and local school boards and thus determining who receives benefits and rewards through schooling. However, middle-class values are those that are generally incorporated in the culture of schooling. The social-class values that children learn in their homes largely influence not only their belief in schooling but also their routines and habits in the classroom.

BEST PRACTICE Accommodating the Influence of Social Class on Schooling

- Students who are extremely poor or homeless may need help from the teacher to store possessions at school.
- A teacher who receives an expensive gift should consult the school district's ethics policies.
- The successful outcome of a school assignment or project should not depend on extensive family financial resources.

Values about Age-Appropriate Activities Age interacts with culture, socioeconomic status, gender, and other factors to influence an individual's behavior and attitudes. In various cultures, expectations about appropriate activities for children and the purpose of those activities differ. Middle-class European Americans expect children to spend much of their time playing and attending school rather than performing tasks similar to those of adults; some families, however, expect their children to take sports activities as seriously as do professional athletes. Cree Indian children, on the other hand, are expected from an early age to learn adult roles, including contributing food to the family. Parents may criticize schools for involving children in tasks that are not related to their future participation in Cree society (Sindell, 1988).

Cultures also differ in their criteria for moving through the various (culturally defined) life cycle changes. An important stage in any culture is the move into adulthood, but the age at which this occurs and the criteria necessary for attaining adulthood vary according to what adulthood means in a particular culture. Rural, traditional families in many countries expect young men

and women to be socially mature when they enter high school, whereas other families, for example, middle-class families in Taiwan, expect a much longer period of adolescence.

BEST PRACTICE Accommodating Diverse Ideas about Work and Play

- Child labor laws in the United States forbid students from working for pay before a given age. However, few laws govern children working in family businesses. If a child appears chronically tired, the school counselor may need to discuss the child's involvement in a family business with a responsible family member.
- Cultural groups in which girls are expected to marry and have children at the age of fifteen or sixteen (e.g., Hmong) may need access to alternative schools.
- If a student misses school because of obligations to accompany family members to social services to act as a translator or to stay at home as a babysitter, the school counselor may be able to intervene to help families find other resources.

Values about Occupations In the United States, occupation very often determines income, which in turn is a chief determinant of prestige in the culture. Other cultures, however, may attribute prestige to those with inherited status or to those who have a religious function in the culture. Prestige is one factor in occupational choices. Other factors can include cultural acceptance of the occupation, educational requirements, gender, and attainability. Students therefore may not see all occupations as desirable or even available to them and may have mixed views about the role education plays in their future occupations.

Some cultural groups in the United States are engaged in a voluntary way of life that does not require public schooling (e.g., the Amish). Other groups may not be adequately rewarded in the United States for school success but expect to be rewarded elsewhere (e.g., children of diplomats and short-term residents who expect to return to their home country). Still other groups may be involuntarily incorporated into U.S. society and relegated to menial occupations and ways of life that do not reward and require school success. As a result, they may not apply academic effort (Ogbu & Matute-Bianchi, 1986).

BEST PRACTICE Accommodating Occupational Aspirations

- At all grade levels, school subjects should be connected with future vocations.
- Role models from minority communities might be invited to visit the classroom to recount stories of their success. Successful professionals and businesspeople can visit and explain how cultural diversity is supported in their place of work.
- Teachers should make available at every grade an extensive set of books on occupations and their requirements and discuss these with students.

Values about Child-Rearing The ways in which families raise their children have significant implications for schools. Factors such as who takes care of children, how much supervision they receive, how much freedom they have, who speaks to them and how often, and

what they are expected to do affect students' behavior on entering schools. Many of the misunderstandings that occur between teachers and students arise because of different expectations about behavior, and these different expectations stem from early, ingrained child-rearing practices.

Because the largest group of English learners in California is of Mexican ancestry, teachers who take the time to learn about child-rearing practices among Mexican immigrants can help students adjust to schooling practices in the United States. An excellent source for this cultural study is *Crossing Cultural Borders* (Delgado-Gaitan & Trueba, 1991).

Food Preferences and Practices As the numbers of school-provided breakfasts and lunches increase, food preferences are an important consideration. Furthermore, teachers who are knowledgeable about students' dietary practices can incorporate their students' background knowledge into health and nutrition instruction.

Besides customs of what and when to eat, eating habits vary widely across cultures, and “good” manners at the table in some cultures are inappropriate or rude in others. For example, the Indochinese consider burping, lip smacking, and soup slurping to be common behaviors during meals, even complimentary to hosts. Cultural relativity is not, however, an excuse for poor or unhygienic eating. Teachers who supervise lunchrooms may need to teach students the behaviors that are considered good food manners in the U.S. mainstream context.

BEST PRACTICE Dealing with Food Preferences

- In addition to knowing in general what foods are eaten at home, teachers will want to find out about students' favorite foods, taboo foods, and typical foods.
- Eating lunch with students, even by invitation only, can provide the opportunity to learn about students' habits.
- If a student's eating habits alienate peers, the teacher may need to discuss appropriate behaviors.

Valuing Humanities and the Arts In many cultures, crafts performed at home—such as food preparation, sewing and weaving, carpentry, home building and decoration, and religious and ritual artistry for holy days and holidays—are an important part of the culture that is transmitted within the home. Parents also provide an important means of access to the humanities and the visual and performing arts of their cultures. The classroom teacher can foster an appreciation of the works of art, architecture, music, and dance that have been achieved by students' native cultures by drawing on the resources of the community and then sharing these with all members of the classroom.

Cooperation Versus Competition Many cultures emphasize cooperation over competition. Traditional U.S. classrooms mirror middle-class European American values of competition: Students are expected to do their own work; are rewarded publicly through star charts, posted grades, and academic honors; and are admonished to do their individual best. In the Cree Indian culture, however, children are raised in a cooperative atmosphere, with siblings, parents, and other kin sharing food as well as labor (Sindell, 1988). Suina observes the

psychological shock that he faced as a Pueblo Indian fitting in to higher education the University of New Mexico in the 1970s:

Psychologically, too, it wasn't very easy, because there are two different sets of values involved, and two different paces of life. One is very individualistic: the focus is on the individual, the person, what you do. It's for you, you know? It's me, myself, and I, whereas the other one is much more group-oriented. It's community-oriented, where the people are interdependent, and the focus is on the group as opposed to the individual. So that was a very difficult psychological kind of movement back and forth. And then of course, the pace of life was a little bit different as well. The demands to do this and that were always so much more pressing at the college, it wasn't just a matter of taking responsibility. I could do that; I could take responsibility for my own actions and my own life. But it was that you had to push yourself to the forefront. (Suina, 2011 n. p.)

A classroom structured to maximize learning through cooperation can help students extend their cultural predilection for interdependence. However, this interdependence does not devalue the uniqueness of the individual. In the Mexican American culture, interdependence is strength; individuals have a commitment to others, and all decisions are made together. Those who are successful have a responsibility to others to help them succeed. The Mexican culture values *individualismo*, the affirmation of an individual's intrinsic worth and uniqueness aside from any successful actions or grand position in society (deUnamuno, 1925). A workable synthesis of individualism versus interdependence would come from classroom activities that are carried out as a group but that affirm the unique gifts of each individual student.

Adapting to Students' Culturally Supported Facilitating or Limiting Attitudes and Abilities

A skilled intercultural educator recognizes that each culture supports distinct attitudes, values, and abilities that may either facilitate or limit learning in U.S. public schools. For example, the cultures of Japan, China, and Korea, which promote high academic achievement, may foster facilitating behaviors such as the ability to listen and follow directions, attitudes favoring education and respect for teachers and authorities, ideas of discipline as guidance, and high-achievement motivation. However, other culturally supported traits may hinder adjustment to the U.S. school, such as lack of previous participation in discussions; little experience with independent thinking; strong preference for conformity, which inhibits divergent thinking; and distinct sex-role differentiation, with males more dominant.

Mexican American cultural values encourage cooperation, affectionate and demonstrative parental relationships, children's assumption of mature social responsibilities such as child care and translating family matters from English to Spanish, and eagerness to try out new ideas. All of these values facilitate classroom success. On the other hand, such attitudes as depreciating education after high school, especially for women; explicit sex-role stereotyping favoring limited vocational roles for women; emphasis of family over the achievement and life goals of children; and dislike of competition may work against classroom practices and hinder school success (Clark, 1983).

Accommodating school routines is a schoolwide responsibility that is furthered when the principal sets the tone of appreciation and support for cultural diversity. Much can also be done by individual teachers in the classroom to set high standards of achievement that students and family members can support.

Educating Students about Diversity

Both mainstream students and CLD students benefit from education about diversity, not only cultural diversity but also diversity in ability, gender preference, and human nature in general. This engenders pride in cultural identity, expands the students' perspectives, and adds cultural insight, information, and experiences to the curriculum.

Cultural content is an important part of education; it is a means by which students come to understand their own culture(s) as well as the mainstream U.S. culture. As Curtain and Dahlberg (2010) commented,

The interests and developmental levels of the students in the class must guide the choice of cultural information selected for instruction... Children penetrate a new culture through meaningful experiences with cultural practices and cultural phenomena that are appropriate to their age level, their interests, and the classroom setting. (p. 259)

Global and Multicultural Education

ELD teachers, as well as mainstream teachers who teach English learners, can bring a global and multicultural perspective to their classes.

Language teachers, like teachers in all other areas of the curriculum, have a responsibility to plan lessons with sensitivity to the racial and ethnic diversity present in their classrooms and in the world in which their students live... [Students] can learn to value the points of view of many others whose life experiences are different from their own. (Curtain & Dahlberg, 2010, p. 276)

Table 10.1 lists some cultural activities that Curtain and Dahlberg recommended for adding cultural content to the curriculum.

TABLE 10.1 Sample Cultural Activities for Multicultural Education

Activity	Suggested Implementation
Visitors and guest speakers	Guests can share their experiences on a variety of topics, using visuals, slides, and hands-on materials.
Folk dances, singing games, and other kinds of games	Many cultures can be represented; cultural informants can help.
Field trips	Students can visit neighborhoods, restaurants, museums, or stores that feature cultural materials.
Show-and-tell	Students can bring items from home to share with the class.
Read fables, folktales, or legends	Read in translation or have a visitor read in another language.
Read books about other cultures	Age-appropriate fiction or nonfiction books can be obtained with the help of the school or public librarian.
Cross-cultural email contacts	Students can exchange cultural information and get to know peers from other lands.
Magazine subscriptions	Authentic cultural materials—written for adults or young people—give insight about the lifestyles and interests of others.

Source: Curtain & Dahlberg, 2010.

There is a clear distinction between multiculturalism and globalism, although both are important features of the school curriculum: “Globalism emphasizes the cultures and peoples of other lands, and multiculturalism deals with ethnic diversity within the United States” (Ukpokodu, 2002, pp. 7–8).

DID YOU KNOW?

STUDYING CULTURES HERE AND THERE

James Banks explained the difference between studying the cultures of other countries and studying the cultures within the United States. For example, according to Banks, many teachers implement a unit on the country of Japan but avoid teaching about Japanese internment in the United States during World War II.

Source: Brandt, 1994

The Multicultural Curriculum: From Additive to Transformative

The goal of multicultural education is to help students to develop cross-cultural competence within a national culture, understanding and valuing their own subculture while being exposed to diverse other cultures. Banks introduced a model of multicultural education that has proved to be a useful way of assessing the approach taken in pedagogy and curricula. The model has four levels, represented in Table 10.2 with a critique of strengths and shortcomings taken from Jenks, Lee, and Kanpol (2002).

Similar to Banks's superficial-to-transformative continuum is that of Morey and Kilano (1997). Their three-level framework for incorporating diversity identifies as “exclusive” the stereotypical focus on external aspects of diversity (what they called the four *f*'s: food, folklore, fun, and fashion); as “inclusive” the addition of diversity into a curriculum that, although enriched, fundamentally has the same structure; and as “transformed” the curriculum that is built on diverse perspectives, equity in participation, and critical problem solving. Thus, it is clear that pouring new wine (multicultural awareness) into old bottles (teacher-centered, one-size-fits-all instruction) is not transformative.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Transformative Multicultural Education

Christensen (2000) described how her students were moved to action:

One year our students responded to a negative newspaper article, about how parents feared to send their children to our school, by organizing a march and rally to “tell the truth about Jefferson to the press.” During the Columbus quincentenary, my students organized a teach-in about Columbus for classes at Jefferson. Of course, these “spontaneous uprisings” only work if teachers are willing to give over class time for the students to organize, and if they’ve highlighted times when people in history resisted injustice, making it clear that solidarity and courage are values to be prized in daily life, not just praised in the abstract and put on the shelf. (pp. 8–9)

TABLE 10.2 Banks's Levels of Multicultural Education with Critique

Level	Description	Strengths	Shortcomings
Contributions	Emphasizes what minority groups have contributed to society (examples: International Food Day, bulletin board display for Black History Month).	Attempts to sensitize the majority White culture to some understanding of minority groups' history.	May amount to "cosmetic" multiculturalism in which no discussion takes place about issues of power and disenfranchisement.
Additive	Adding material to the curriculum to address what has been omitted (reading <i>The Color Purple</i> in English class).	Adds to a fuller coverage of the American experience, when sufficient curricular time is allotted.	May be an insincere effort if dealt with superficially.
Transformative	An expanded perspective is taken that deals with issues of historic, ethnic, cultural, and linguistic injustice and equality as a part of the American experience.	Students learn to be reflective and develop a critical perspective.	Incorporates the fallacy that discussion alone changes society.
Social Action	Extension of the transformative approach to add students' research/action projects to initiate change in society.	Students learn to question the status quo and the commitment of the dominant culture to equality and social justice.	Middle-class communities may not accept the teacher's role, considering it as provoking students to "radical" positions.

Source: Model based on Banks, 1994; strengths and shortcomings based on Jenks, Lee, & Kanpol, 2002.

Validating Students' Cultural Identity

"An affirming attitude toward students from culturally diverse backgrounds significantly impacts their learning, belief in self, and overall academic performance" (Villegas & Lucas, 2002, p. 23). Cultural identity—that is, having a positive self-concept or evaluation of oneself and one's culture—promotes self-esteem. Students who feel proud of their successes and abilities, self-knowledge, and self-expression, and who have enhanced images of self, family, and culture, are better learners.

Of course, the most powerful sense of self-esteem is the result not solely of one's beliefs about oneself but also of successful learning experiences. Practices of schooling that damage self-esteem, such as tracking and competitive grading, undermine authentic cooperation and a sense of accomplishment on the part of English learners.

Classroom Practices That Validate Identity Siccone (1995) described the activity Name Interviews in which students work in pairs using a teacher-provided questionnaire: "What do you like about your name? Who named you? Were you named for someone? Are there members of your family who have the same name?" This activity can be adapted for both elementary and secondary classrooms. Interested teachers might ask students to provide initial information about cultural customs in their homes, perhaps pertaining to birthdays or holidays. Through observations, shared conversations during lunchtime or before or after school, and group participation, teachers can gain understanding about various individuals and their cultures.

Educators who form relationships with parents can talk about the students' perception of their own identity. Teachers can also ask students to interview their parents about common topics such as work, interests, and family history and then add a reflective element about their relationship and identification with these aspects of their parents' lives.

BEST PRACTICE Cultural Content Promotes School Engagement

In a study of 600 middle and high school teachers in Hawaii, Takayama and Ledward (2009) found that school engagement was higher on the part of students whose teachers drew upon the concepts of *'ohana* (family), *kaiaulu* (community), and *olelo* (Hawaiian language) to create culturally relevant content, contexts, and assessments during classroom learning. School engagement includes "emotional engagement (students' feelings about teachers, other students, and school in general); behavioral engagement (inferred through positive conduct and adherence to rules); and cognitive engagement (willingness to exert effort in learning)."

Source: Takayama & Ledward, 2009, p. 1

Instructional Materials That Validate Identity Classroom texts are available that offer literature and anecdotal readings aimed at the enhancement of identity and self-esteem. *Identities: Readings from Contemporary Culture* (Raimes, 1996) includes readings grouped into chapters titled "Name," "Appearance, Age, and Abilities," "Ethnic Affiliation and Class," "Family Ties," and so forth. The readings contain authentic text and may be best used in middle or high school classes.

Multicultural literature can enhance cultural and ethnic identity, but this is not always the case. The website SocialJusticeBooks.org, a project of the nonprofit organization Teaching for Change (2017), hosts a link to the publication *Guide for Selecting Anti-Bias Children's Books*. This offers more than fifty lists of recommended books for children and young adults on multicultural topics, including stories of African Americans, Latinx, Arab Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, social justice, and multicultural children's literature. Another resource is *Exploring Culturally Diverse Literature for Children and Adolescents* (Henderson & May, 2005), with suggestions on how to help readers understand how stories are tied to specific cultural and sociopolitical histories.

Promoting Mutual Respect among Students

The ways in which we organize classroom life should make children feel significant and cared about—by the teacher and by one another. Unless students feel emotionally and physically safe, they will be reluctant to share real thoughts and feelings. Classroom life should, to the greatest extent possible, prefigure the kind of democratic and just society we envision and thus contribute to building that society. Together, students and teachers can create a "community of conscience," as educators Asa Hillard and George Pine call it (Christensen, 2000, p. 18). Mutual respect is promoted when teachers listen as much as they speak, when students can build on their personal and cultural strengths, when the curriculum includes multiple points of view, and when students are given the chance to genuinely talk to one another about topics that concern them. This can be accomplished using the Instructional Conversation discourse format (see Chapter 6).

Learning about Students' Cultures

Teachers can use printed, electronic, and video materials, books, and magazines to learn about other cultures. However, the richest source of information is local—the life of the community. Students, parents, and community members can provide insights about values, attitudes, and habits. One method of learning about students and their families, ethnographic study, has proved useful in illuminating the ways that students' experiences in the home and community compare with the culture of the schools.

Ethnographic Techniques

Ethnography is an inquiry process that seeks to provide cultural explanations for behavior and attitudes. Culture is described from the insider's point of view, as the classroom teacher becomes not only an observer of the students' cultures but also an active participant. Parents and community members, as well as students, become sources for the gradual growth of understanding on the part of the teacher.

For the classroom teacher, ethnography involves gathering data to understand two distinct cultures: the culture of the students' communities and the culture of the classroom. To understand the home and community environment, teachers may observe and participate in community life, interview community members, and visit students' homes. To understand the school culture, teachers may observe in a variety of classrooms, have visitors observe in their own classroom, audio- and videotape classroom interaction, and interview other teachers and administrators.

Observations Ideally, initial observations of other cultures must be carried out with the perspective that one is seeing the culture from the point of view of a complete outsider. Of course, when observing interactions and behaviors in another culture, one always uses the frame of reference supplied by one's own culture. This stance gradually changes as one adopts an ethnographic perspective.

Observers need to be descriptive and objective and make explicit their own attitudes and values to overcome hidden sources of bias. This requires practice and, ideally, some training. However, the classroom teacher can begin to observe and participate in the students' culture, writing up field notes after participating and perhaps summing up the insights gained in an ongoing diary that can be shared with colleagues. Such observation can document children's use of language within the community; etiquettes of speaking, listening, writing, greeting, and getting or giving information; values and aspirations; and norms of communication.

When analyzing the culture of the classroom, teachers might look at classroom management and routines; affective factors (students' attitudes toward activities, teachers' attitudes toward students); classroom talk in general; and nonverbal behaviors and communication. In addition to the raw data of behavior, the thoughts and intentions of the participants can also be documented.

Interviews Two types of interviews can be used to gather information about students: structured and unstructured. Structured interviews use a set of predetermined questions to gain specific kinds of information. Unstructured interviews are more like conversations in that they can range over a wide variety of topics, many of which the interviewer would not necessarily have anticipated. As an outsider learning about a new culture, the classroom teacher would be better served initially by using an unstructured interview, beginning with general questions and being guided in follow-up questions by the interviewees' responses. The result

of the initial interview may in turn provide a structure for learning more about the culture during a second interview or conversation. A very readable book about ethnography and interviewing is *The Professional Stranger: An Informal Introduction to Ethnography* (Agar, 1996), also provides an outline of various ethnographic techniques and guidelines.

Home Visits The home visit is one of the best ways in which teachers can learn what is familiar and important to their students. The home visit can be a social call or a brief report on the student's progress that enhances rapport with students and parents. Scheduling an appointment ahead of time is a courtesy that some cultures may require and provides a means for the teacher to ascertain if home visits are welcome. The visit should be short (twenty to thirty minutes) and the conversation positive, especially about the student's schoolwork. Viewing the child in the context of the home provides a look at the parent-child interaction, the resources of the home, and the child's role in the family. Ernst-Slavit and Mason (n.d.) offer tips to teachers of English learners for pre-visit planning, what to do during the visit, and appropriate postvisit follow-ups.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

Friday Night Dinners

Emily Naisbit announces to her third-grade class each fall that she is available to visit students' homes for family dinners on Friday nights. One after another, students "book" her Fridays for their turn to host her. The families are delighted that she will visit and share their dinner meal. In this way, she gets to know each family in their home environment.

Students as Sources of Information

Students generally provide teachers with their initial contact with other cultures. Through observations, one-on-one interaction, and group participatory processes, teachers gain understanding about various individuals and their cultural repertoires. Teachers who are good listeners offer students time for shared conversations by lingering after school or opening the classroom during lunchtime. Questionnaires and interest surveys are also useful. Cary (2000) called this information about students their "outside story": "The outside story unfolds away from school and is built from a thousand and one experiences hooked to home and home country culture—family structure, language, communication patterns, social behavior, values, spirituality, and worldview" (p. 20).

BEST PRACTICE

A Teacher Explores the Hmong Culture

Cary's *Working with Second Language Learners: Answers to Teachers' Top Ten Questions* (2000) details one teacher's exploration of the culture and homeland of a Hmong student, Ka Xiong. Lenny Rossoovich, the teacher of the new fifth grader, used every resource from a school encyclopedia, websites (including the Hmong homepage), the local library, and one of Ka's uncles to learn more about the Hmong culture. Lenny even took a few Hmong language lessons on the Internet. Lenny's adventure toward understanding his student is an engrossing model.

Families as Sources of Information

Family members can be sources of information in much the same way as their children. Rather than scheduling one or two formal conferences, PTA open house events, and gala performances, the school might encourage family participation by opening the library once a week after school. This offers a predictable time during which family members and teachers can casually meet and chat. Families can also be the source for information that can form the basis for classroom writing. Using the language experience approach, teachers can ask students to interview their family members about common topics such as work, interests, and family history. In this way, students and family members together can supply knowledge about community life.

Community Members as Sources of Information

Community members are an equally rich source of cultural knowledge. Much can be learned about a community by walking or driving through it, or stopping to make a purchase in local stores and markets. Teachers may ask older students to act as tour guides. During these visits, the people of the neighborhood can be sources of knowledge about housing, spaces where children and teenagers play, places where adults gather, and sources of food, furniture, and services.

Through community representatives, teachers can begin to know about important living patterns of a community. A respected elder can provide information about the family and which members constitute a family. A religious leader can explain the importance of religion in community life. Teachers can also attend local ceremonies and activities to learn more about community dynamics.

The Internet as an Information Source about Cultures

Websites proliferate that introduce the curious to other cultures. Webcrawler programs assist the user to explore cultural content using key word prompts. A search engine can locate websites with information about cultures commonly—or uncommonly—represented in U.S. schools.

Culturally Inclusive Learning Environments

Culturally responsive accommodations help teachers maintain culturally inclusive learning environments. But what characteristics of classroom and school environments facilitate culturally responsive accommodations to diverse communities?

What Is a Culturally Supportive Classroom?

A variety of factors contribute to classroom and school environments that support cultural diversity and student achievement. The most important feature of these classrooms is the expectation of high achievement from English learners while supporting them culturally, intellectually, and emotionally toward the attainment of this goal. Communicating these expectations requires specific educational programs that draw attention to the hidden curriculum of the school, quality of interaction between teachers and students, diverse learning styles, the use of the community as a resource, and a commitment to democratic ideals in the classroom (Gollnick & Chinn, 2013). Such factors as culturally accommodating schooling, supporting students' culture(s) and language(s), and conflict resolution have already been discussed. High

expectations, active student learning, and use of critical thinking and critical consciousness are explored in turn, followed by ways to involve the family and community.

High Expectations for All Students Expectations for student achievement are also a feature of culturally responsive schooling. Teachers need to challenge students to strive for excellence as defined by their potential. Teachers tread a fine line between expecting too much of their students, causing frustration on students' part through stress and overwork, and expecting too little by watering down the curriculum, leading to boredom and low academic achievement.

Many students' abilities are underestimated because their second-language skills do not adequately convey their talents. Sometimes unfamiliarity with the students' culture compounds the language barrier. Ongoing formative assessment, combined with a sensitive awareness of students' needs and a willingness to be flexible, help the teacher monitor and adjust the instructional level to students' abilities.

Teachers' behavior varies with the level of expectation held about the students. Students of whom much is expected are given more frequent cues and prompts to respond to, asked more and harder questions, given a longer time to respond, encouraged to provide more elaborate answers, and interrupted less often (Good & Brophy, 1984). Teachers tend to be encouraging toward students for whom they have high expectations. They smile at these students more often and show greater warmth through nonverbal responses such as leaning toward the students and nodding their head as students speak (Woolfolk & Brooks, 1985).

Students' responses to teacher expectations seem to be highly influenced by cultural background and home discourse patterns. Sato (1982) found that Asian students initiated classroom discourse less often than English learners from other countries. Some cultures encourage students to set internal standards of worth, and peer pressure also devalues dependence on teachers for approval; therefore students are less apt to participate in classroom discourse. Georgakopoulos and Guerrero (2010) studied the perceptions of students from six diverse cultures as to what they believed were effective verbal and nonverbal instructor behaviors. Across cultures, the best instructors were perceived to employ more nonverbal expressiveness, relaxed movements, in-class conversation, and out-of-class communication.

Motivating Students to Become Active Participants in Their Learning Learner autonomy is a key element of constructivist learning, in which teachers help students to construct new knowledge, providing scaffolds between what students already know and what they need to learn. Autonomy is the learner's ability and willingness to study due to internal volition. Learner autonomy is the basis for self-managed, self-motivated instruction. More than a preference or strategy by the learner, autonomy must be supported in a systematic way by the teacher and curriculum for the learner to benefit, but it is at risk in the climate of coercive adherence to standardized test scores as the sole criterion of effective instruction. Certainly, in democratic schooling, there is a place for choice in topics and freedom to voice divergent views.

Encouraging Students to Think Critically and Become Socially and Politically Conscious "Sociocultural consciousness means understanding that one's way of thinking, behaving, and being is influenced by race, ethnicity, social class, and language" (Kea, Campbell-Whately, & Richards, 2004, p. 4). Students as well as teachers need to have clarity of vision about their sociocultural identities and their role in the institutions that maintain social and economic distinctions based on social class and skin color.

Political and social consciousness is hard-won. It requires teachers to offer students a forum in which to discuss social and political events without partisan rancor, to investigate

issues in the national and local press that are open to multiple perspectives, and to find a way to support students' voices about their lives and feelings. Bulletin boards on which student writing can be posted, weekly current event discussions, and class newsletters are projects that can encourage autonomous student thinking, writing, and discussion.

An important aspect of schooling in a democracy is the ability to think for oneself, analyze ideas, separate fact from opinion, support opinions from reading, make inferences, and solve problems. The ability to think critically can enhance self-understanding and help students approach significant issues in life with analytic skills. Critical thinking includes the ability to look for underlying assumptions in statements, to detect bias, to identify illogical connections between ideas, and to recognize attempts to influence opinion by means of propaganda. These skills are fundamental to the clear thinking required of autonomous citizens in a democracy.

Family and Community Involvement

Family and community involvement supports and encourages students and provides opportunities for families and educators to work together in educating students. Families need to become involved in different settings and at different levels of the educational process. Family members can help teachers establish a genuine respect for their children and the strengths they bring to the classroom. They can work with their own children at home or serve on school committees. Collaborative involvement in school restructuring includes family and community members who help set goals and allocate resources.

Value Differences in Family and Community Support for Schooling

Family involvement in the school is influenced by cultural beliefs. The U.S. system was developed from small, relatively homogeneous local schools with considerable community and parental control. The pattern of community and parental involvement continues today with school boards, PTAs, and parent volunteers in the schools. This pattern is not universal outside the United States. For example, in traditional Cambodia, village families who sent their children to schools in cities had no means of involving themselves in the school (Ouk, Huffman, & Lewis, 1988).

In cultures in which teachers are accorded high status, parents may consider it improper to discuss educational matters or bring up issues that concern their children. Other factors that make family involvement difficult are school procedures such as restrictive scheduling for family–teacher conferences and notification of parents that students' siblings are not welcome at school for conferences and other events. These procedures tend to divide families and exclude parents. School staff members can involve the community by talking with parents and community liaisons to work out procedures that are compatible with cultural practices.

Issues in Family Involvement Schools grappling with how to increase parental involvement have encountered many of the same issues. Ovando and Collier (1998, pp. 301–309) organized these issues around five areas: language, survival and family structure, educational background and values, knowledge about education and beliefs about learning, and power and status. From each area arise questions that serve as guides for school personnel as they build collaborations with parents. These questions, and some strategies that address these issues, are presented in Table 10.3.

TABLE 10.3 Relationships Strategies for Teachers Based on Questions Regarding Parent–School

Area of Concern	Questions	Strategies for Teachers
Language	How does educators' language (jargon?) affect home–school communication?	Translate jargon into plain English and then into the home language.
	Do community members support using the home language in school?	Advocate use of the home language in all communication with families.
Family structure	How do the struggles of day-to-day survival affect the home–school partnership?	Arrange conferences at convenient times for working families.
	How does family structure affect the relationship?	Speak about “families” rather than “parents.” Honor all types of families.
Educational background, attitudes toward schooling	Do school expectations match the parents' educational backgrounds?	Discover the parents' aspirations for their children. The school and family should agree on high standards.
	What do educators assume about the attitudes of parents toward schooling?	Communicate with families honestly and positively.
Knowledge and beliefs about education	How do parents learn about school culture, their role in U.S. schools, and the specific methods being used in their child's classroom?	Incorporate family education events, family literacy classes, primary-language written and oral information, formal and informal teacher–family talks, and family tutoring training.
Power and status	How does the inherent inequality of the educator–layperson relationship affect the partnership?	Try to have a “family space” at the school. Parents should be informed and involved in decisions.
	Do programs for parents convey a message of cultural deficiency?	The funds-of-knowledge approach affirms and respects the knowledge of the home.
	To what degree are language-minority community members a part of the school in instructional and administrative positions?	Bilingual speakers are considered respected assets for the school as well as the classroom.

Source: Adapted from Ovando & Collier, 1998, pp. 301–309.

Myths about Families and Other Communication Barriers

Often teachers think that families of English learners are not interested in what happens in schools because they are not visible at parent meetings or traditional parent–school activities. However, surveys of family members show that an overwhelming number express interest in being involved in school events, activities, and decisions. At the same time, they report that they are often not consulted about the type of involvement, scheduling of activities, or location of events. These reports show that the so-called lack of interest myth that circulates in low-achieving schools may be due to poor communication between home and school.

Enhancing Home–School Communication

If the teacher does not speak the same language as the family, nonverbal messages assume an increased importance. Teachers who meet family members informally as they arrive to drop off their child, at a classroom open house, or during other school events should strive to

demonstrate “warm” body language rather than cold. Teachers can show respect toward family members by, for example, rising as visitors enter the room, greeting guests at the door, and accompanying them to the door when they leave.

Any notes, letters, or newsletters sent home need to be translated into the home language. If communication sent home is positive, there is more chance it will be read. Many teachers establish a positive communication pattern by sending a consistent stream of “happy grams” describing what a student has done well. However, if a student has a problem in class, communication between home and school must be consistent and sustained. Any program of home–school communication is first based on having established a rapport with parents in person.

Teachers have modified a wide range of classroom behaviors through the use of school-to-home notes. The most effective notes focus on the improvement of academic productivity, such as the amount or quality of completed classwork or homework. In contrast, a focus on the student’s disruptiveness may not cause an improvement in academic performance.

Family–Teacher Conferences

Preparation for meetings with families enhances success. The concerned teacher makes sure that scheduled times are convenient for family members and prepares a portfolio of the student’s successes. The conference might begin with a limited amount of small talk, especially if there has been a recent notable family event. Then the teacher reviews the student’s performance, using the portfolio or other evidence of student work. Showing an anonymous example of a grade-level performance may make it easier for family members to put their child’s performance in perspective. Listening to family members helps the teacher get a more complete view of the child. If a plan for improvement needs to be drawn up, specific steps are outlined, as well as a time in the near future to compare notes on the child’s progress.

The Use of an Interpreter Having a translator facilitate parent conferences shows respect for the home language of families. During the conference, the interpreter usually translates the client’s words as closely as possible to give a sense of the client’s concepts, emotional state, and other important information. Despite the language difference, the teacher can watch nonverbal, affective responses and extend communication by observing facial expressions, voice intonations, and body movements.

Tracking Contact with the Family All family contact should be documented in an activity log, including date, subject, and parents’ reactions. In this way, a record is available to see what communication efforts have been made.

Three-Way Conferences Including the student in the family–teacher conference invites family members into a dialogue about their child’s schooling. Students can use this opportunity to demonstrate what they know, share their accomplishments, and set new learning goals. Teachers act as guides by clarifying ideas and issues and responding to specific questions. In this way, students are encouraged to follow through on their self-regulated learning.

How Families Can Assist in a Child’s Learning

Schools that have a take-home library of print- and media-based materials encourage learning activities outside of school. In a dual-language setting, families can work with their children in either language.

If the Family Does Not Seem Supportive Families may not initially support learning in two languages. For example, Watahomigie (1995) described parents' negative reaction on the Hualapai Indian reservation in Peach Springs, Arizona, when educators proposed that schools establish a Hualapai-English bilingual program. The parents had been told for more than 100 years that the native language was unimportant, and they did not believe that such instruction would benefit their children. A high-tech approach was eventually successful, built on efforts to convince parents of its value.

Family Literacy Projects In Fresno, California, the Hmong Literacy Project was initiated by parents to help students appreciate their cultural roots, preserve oral history, and maintain the culture through written records. Parents asked for literacy lessons in Hmong (a language that has been written for only about thirty years) and in English. The program helped families to develop not only literacy skills but also skills in math and computers, which then allowed them to help their children academically. The Hmong Parents Newsletter increased communication between the school and the community, leading to greater parent participation in school activities (Kang, Kuehn, & Herrell, 1996).

Internet Resources for Family Involvement

Websites are available that feature various models of family involvement, including those found using “family involvement,” “school-home connection,” “parent involvement in schools,” and “school involvement with families.” The website of the National Alliance for Secondary Education and Transition (<http://nasetalliance.org/family/index.htm>) features standards to guide for exemplary practices in family involvement. These include school staff members' demonstrating a strong commitment and an encouraging welcome to family involvement; flexible, reciprocal, and meaningful communication among youth, families, and schools; and the formation of a true partnership in developing policies and decisions that affect youth and families. The website also links to supporting evidence and research on these guidelines and suggested practices.

A Model of Home–School Relationships

Faltis (2001) provided a four-level sequence for home–school relationships. Although teachers may not be able to reach the highest level of parental involvement at a particular school site, the model presents an overall view of the possibilities. This reciprocal process is summarized in Table 10.4.

Box 10.1 offers a host of tactics for involving parents in learning, ranging from providing information to learning from them about their views on education. These suggestions are drawn from Jones (1991), among other sources, including Fredericks and Rasinski (1990). Rather than include a separate list of suggestions from each source, these are amalgamated into categories. These recommendations do not include the online connections that now take place between schools and families, such as school websites on which administrators post announcements and teachers post grades, homework help websites, Twitter and Instagram posts, teachers' email availability, and a multitude of after-school basic-skills apps for mobile devices, recommended supplementary sites such as Kahn Academy, and augmented-reality games and projects. Home-school connection is now three-pronged: home and school, plus technology.

TABLE 10.4 A Two-Way Parent–School Involvement Model

Level of Involvement	Description of Activity
I. Teacher–parent contact	The teacher learns about parents' daily experiences and initiates positive home–school contact and dialogue by chatting, making home visits, talking with community workers, and arranging for after-school homework help or tutoring to promote students' success.
II. Sharing information in the home about schooling	The teacher keeps the parents informed (in the home language, if possible) about important school and community events and meetings, changes in school schedules, help available from community-based organizations, and sources of academic support, using such means as student-produced newsletters, personal notes, telephone calls, and other notices.
III. Participation at home and school	Parents, caregivers, and other concerned adults are welcomed and encouraged to come to class and to attend school meetings and social events. Parents may linger in the morning to watch reading and writing take place, or to see a little poetry reading, especially if it takes place in the home language. Students may be assigned to find out about knowledge their families have about planting, banking, and so on, and then teachers can find a way to use and elaborate on this information in class.
IV. Parental empowerment in curricular decisions	After the success of the previous three levels, teachers support parents who become involved as colleagues in professional activities and decisions. Some parents form advisory committees, start community tutoring centers, and find multiple means to influence school policy and support academic learning outside of the classroom. The role of the teacher is to encourage and work with parents to make these possible.

Source: Adapted from Faltis, 2001.

Family Members as Cultural Mediators

Family members play an important role as “brokers” or go-betweens who can mediate between the school and the home to solve cultural problems and create effective home–school relations.



CLASSROOM GLIMPSE

A Parent Fosters Cultural Pride

One Chinese-American parent successfully intervened in a school situation to the benefit of her daughter and her classmates.

After my daughter was teased by her peers because of her Chinese name, I gave a presentation to her class on the origin of Chinese names, the naming of children in China, and Chinese calligraphy. My daughter has had no more problems about her name. What is more, she no longer complains about her unusual name, and she is proud of her cultural heritage. (Lee, 1988, p. 224)

Whether parents are willing to come to school is largely dependent on their attitude toward school, a result in part of the parents' own experiences. This attitude is also a result of the extent to which they are made welcome by the schools. Invitational barriers can exclude parents as well as students. On the other hand, teachers who are willing to reach out to parents and actively solicit information from them about their children and their hopes for their children's schooling are rewarded with a richer understanding of students' potential.

BOX 10.1**Strategies to Involve Parents in Schooling****Providing Information**

- Informally chat with parents as they pick up their child after school.
- Use the telephone as an instrument of good news.
- Videotape programs for parents.
- Operate a parent hot line.
- Encourage parent-to-parent communication.
- Hold parent workshops on helping their children with reading skills.
- Offer materials in the home language.
- Provide bilingual handouts that describe programs available through the school.
- Make available a list of parental rights under the Bilingual Education Act.
- Send home personal handwritten notes, using a translator if necessary.
- Send home notes when students are doing well.
- Create parent–student handbooks.
- Have students write classroom newsletters.
- Welcome new families with packets delivered to the home.

Ways to Showcase English Learners

- Enter students in poetry, essay, or art contests or exhibits sponsored by community or professional organizations.
- Offer to train students how to read aloud at libraries or children’s centers.
- Encourage dual-language proficiency as a mark of prestige in school.

Ways to Attract Parents to School

- Encourage parents to come to class to make crafts with students or to discuss culture, calligraphy, or family history.
- Find out if parent conferences or meetings conflict with work schedules.
- Ensure that siblings are welcome at parent conferences or meetings.
- Provide babysitting services for parent conferences.
- Maintain a friendly school office.
- Establish an explicit open-door policy so parents will know they are welcome; include welcoming signs in primary language.
- Suggest specific ways parents can help to promote achievement.
- Help parents to obtain remedial help if necessary in a timely way.
- Make meetings into social events, with food, dramatic, or musical performances if time permits.
- Hold student–teacher–family breakfasts once a month.
- Schedule primary-language speakers at school events.
- Recognize parents for involvement at award ceremonies, send thank-you notes, and speak positively of parents to their child.

What Teachers Can Learn from Parents

- Ideas of better ways to communicate.
- A richer understanding of the student’s role(s) in the family.
- The hopes that parents have for schooling.
- Students’ hobbies, interests, and strengths.

(continued)

BOX 10.1 Continued**Homework Tips for Parents (adapted from Jones, 1991)**

- Set aside a family quiet time when each person has homework or other activities to do that demand concentration.
- Have a regular means for finding out what assignments to expect.
- Make sure there is a place set aside for homework; provide paper, pencils, adequate lighting, etc.
- Check with the child to see if he or she understands the assignment. If needed, work through a problem. Have someone to call for help if necessary.
- Check the completed assignment with the child.
- Praise the work or offer constructive improvements.

Workshops and Parent Support Groups (adapted from Jones, 1991)

- Make-it-and-take-it workshops to construct home learning materials
- Family Learning Center—school library or computer center is open several nights a week with learning activities for all ages
- Learning Fairs—single-topic sessions held in the evening
- Parent support groups hosted by community members
- Family Room—a room at school set aside for families to drop in and participate in informal activities, play with toys, and talk with other parents
- Child and adolescent development talks
- Special topic workshops on reading, math, study skills, self-esteem, etc.

The Home–School Connection

Parents and older siblings can be encouraged to work with preschool and school-age children in a variety of activities. Teachers can encourage home language with children in ways that build underlying cognitive skills. Family members can sit with the child to look at a book, pointing to pictures and asking questions; they can read a few lines and let the child fill in the rest, or let the child retell a familiar story. Children can listen to adults discuss something or observe reading and writing in the primary language. Schools can assist communities with implementing literacy or cultural classes or producing a community primary-language newspaper. The school can also educate students and parents on the benefits of learning the home language of the parents and can find ways to make dual-language proficiency a means of gaining prestige at school (Ouk et al., 1988).

**CLASSROOM GLIMPSE****The Publishing Party**

One teacher describes the success of a nonfiction Publishing Party hosted by the students. Parents and many extended family members came, as did neighbors and youth organization leaders with whom the students were involved. At various places around the room, reports were visible with yellow comment sheets. Visitors could sit at a desk or table, read, and comment on what they had read.

Language was not a barrier. Many parents encouraged their children to read to them in English and translate the stories into the native language. They were proud of the English their child had learned and proud that the child remembered the native language well enough to translate... Everywhere I looked, I saw proud children beaming as they showed their work off to the people they cared about and who cared about them. (Cho Bassoff, 2004, para. 9, 10)

Community volunteers can provide valuable support such as homework help.



Dualstock/iStock/Getty Images

Involving the Family and Community in School Governance

Encouraging parents to participate in school activities is vital. The extra step of sending parents letters, reports, and notices in their home language helps to build rapport and extend a welcome to the school. These language policies constitute the daily message that home languages are important and valued. Parents can receive the message that they are valued in many ways:

- Representative parent committees can advise and consent on school practices that involve English learners.
- School facilities can be made available for meetings of community groups.
- Frequent attendance at school board meetings sends the message that officials are monitored by those who support English learners' achievement.
- Running for a seat on the school board brings power directly to the community.



This chapter has emphasized the important role that teachers can play in learning about their students' communities and cultures and in reducing the culture shock between home and school by working actively toward the creation of culturally compatible instruction. The best way for a teacher to understand culture is first to understand himself or herself and the extent to which U.S. mainstream cultural values are explicitly or implicitly enforced during instruction. A teacher who understands his or her own teaching and learning styles can then ask to what extent each student is similar or dissimilar. This goes a long way toward understanding and honoring individual differences. The key for the intercultural educator is to be sensitive, flexible, and open.

The teacher can then use direct personal observation of social behavior to construct an image of students' cultures from the perspective of the members of those cultures. This understanding can be used to organize classroom activities in ways that are comfortable and promote learning. Thus, an understanding of cultural diversity leads to engagement in the struggle for equity and then to a commitment to promoting educational achievement for all students.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abedi, J. (2004). The No Child Left Behind Act and English language learners: Assessment and accountability issues. *Educational Researcher*, 33(1), 4–14.
- Abedi, J., Hofstetter, C. H., & Lord, C. (2004). Assessment accommodations for English language learners: Implications for policy-based empirical research. *Review of Educational Research*, 74(1), 1–28.
- Adamson, H. D. (1993). *Academic competence*. New York: Longman.
- Agar, M. (1980). *The professional stranger: An informal introduction to ethnography*. Orlando, FL: Academic Press.
- Airasian, P. W. (2005). *Classroom assessment: Concepts and applications* (5th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Alcaya, C., Lybeck, K., Mougél, P., & Weaver, S. (1995). *Some strategies useful for speaking a foreign language*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.
- Alexander, S. (1983). *Nadia, the willful*. New York: Dial.
- Altman, L. J. (1993). *Amelia's road*. New York: Lee and Low Books.
- Anyon, J. (1994). The retreat of Marxism and socialist feminism: Postmodern and poststructural theories in education. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 24, 115–133.
- Asher, J. (1982). *Learning another language through actions: The complete teachers' guidebook*. Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks.
- Au, K., & Jordan, C. (1981). Teaching reading to Hawaiian children: Finding a culturally appropriate solution. In H. Trueba, G. Guthrie, & K. Au (Eds.), *Culture and the bilingual classroom: Studies in classroom ethnography*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Babbitt, N. (1976). *Tuck everlasting*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Baker, C. (1993). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Balderrama, M. V., & Díaz-Rico, L. T. (2006). *Teacher performance expectations for educating English learners*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Banks, J. (1991). A curriculum for empowerment, action, and change. In C. Sleeter (Ed.), *Empowerment through multicultural education*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Banks, J. (1994). *An introduction to multicultural education*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Banks, L. (2010). Approaches to multicultural curriculum and reform. In J. A. Banks and C. A. McGee Banks (Eds.), *Multicultural education: Issues and perspectives* (7th ed., pp. 233–256). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Barbe, W. B., Wasylyk, T. M., Hackney, C. S., & Braun, L. A. (1984). *Zaner-Bloser creative growth in handwriting (grades K–8)*. Columbus, OH: Zaner-Bloser.
- Barr, R., & Johnson, B. (1997). *Teaching reading and writing in elementary classrooms* (2nd ed.). New York: Longman.
- Barrett, J. (1978). *Cloudy with a chance of meatballs*. New York: Scholastic Books.
- Bassano, S., & Christison, M. A. (1995). *Community spirit: A practical guide to collaborative language learning*. San Francisco: Alta Book Center.
- Beaumont, C. J. (1999). Dilemmas of peer assistance in a bilingual full inclusion classroom. *The Elementary School Journal*, 99(3), 233–234.
- Bembridge, T. (1992). A MAP for reading assessment. *Educational Leadership*, 49(8), 46–48.
- Bennett, C. (2003). *Comprehensive multicultural education: Theory and practice* (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bhattacharjee, Y. (2012). Why bilinguals are smarter. *New York Times*, March 17. Retrieved from www.nytimes.com/2012/03/18/opinion/sunday/the-benefits-of-bilingualism.html
- Birdsong, D., & Moils, M. (2001). On the evidence for maturational constraints in second-language acquisition. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 44(2), 235–249.
- Birdwhistell, R. (1974). The language of the body: The natural environment of words. In A. Silverstein (Ed.), *Human communication: Theoretical explorations*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Bloch, J. (2001). Plagiarism and the ESL student: From printed to electronic texts. In D. Belcher & A. Hirvela (Eds.), *Linking literacies: Perspectives on L2 reading-writing connections* (pp. 209–228). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Bonesteel, L., Gargagliano, A., & Lambert, J. (2010). *Future: English for results*. White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Bosher, S. (1997). Language and cultural identity: A study of Hmong students at the postsecondary level. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(3), 593–603.
- Bourdieu, P. (with Passeron, J.). (1977). *Reproduction in society, education, and culture*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Bowen, T., Maruniak, Y., & Zemach, D. E. (2014). *Open mind, starter level* (2nd ed.). New York: Macmillan.
- Boyd, A. S. (2017). *Social justice literacies in the English classroom*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Boyd-Batstone, P. (2006). *Differentiated early literacy for English language learners: Practical strategies*. Boston: Pearson.
- Boyle, A., August, D., Tabaku, L., Cole, S., & Simpson-Baird, A. (2015). *Dual language education programs: Current state policies and practices*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
- Bradley, K. S., & Bradley, J. A. (2004). *Scaffolding academic learning for second language learners*. Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Bradley-Scaffolding>
- Brandt, R. (1994). On educating for diversity: A conversation with James A. Banks. *Educational Leadership*, 51, 28–31.

- Brend, R. M. (1975). Male-female intonation patterns in American English. In B. Thorne & N. Henley (Eds.), *Language and sex: Differences and dominance*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Brinton, D. (2003). Content-based instruction. In D. Nunan (Ed.), *Practical English language teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Brinton, D., & Master, P. (Eds.). (1997). *New ways in content-based instruction*. Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).
- Brisk, M. E., & Harrington, M. M. (2000). *Literacy and bilingualism*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Bromberg, M., Liebb, J., & Traiger, A. (2005). *504 absolutely essential words* (5th ed.). Hauppauge, NY: Barron's.
- Bromley, K. D. (1989). Buddy journals make the reading-writing connection. *The Reading Teacher*, 43(2), 122–129.
- Brooks, G. (1944). *Selected poems*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Brown, A., & Lopez, M. H. (2013). *Mapping the Latino population, by state, county and city*. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center.
- Brown, D. (1987). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Brown, D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bruner, J. (1986). *Actual minds, possible worlds*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Brutt-Griffler, J., & Samimy, K. K. (1999). Revisiting the colonial in the postcolonial: Critical praxis for the nonnative-English-speaking teachers in a TESOL program. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(3), 413–431.
- Buchanan, K., & Helman, M. (1997). Reforming mathematics instruction for ESL literacy students. *ERIC Digest*. Retrieved from www.cal.org/resources/digest/buchan01.html
- Bucholtz, M., Casillas, D. I., & Lee, J. S. (2018). *Feeling it: Language, race, and affect in Latinx youth learning*. New York and London: Routledge.
- Bunch, G. C., Abram, P. L., Lotan, R. A., & Valdés, G. (2001). Beyond sheltered instruction: Rethinking conditions for academic language development. *TESOL Journal*, 10(2/3), 28–33.
- Bunting, E. (1988). *How many days to America?* New York: Clarion.
- Burley-Allen, M. (1995). *Listening: The forgotten skill*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- California Department of Education. (2007). *Reading/-language arts framework for California public schools*. Sacramento: Author.
- California Department of Education. (2010). *Common Core State Standards: English language arts & literacy in history/social studies, science, and technical subjects*. <https://www.cde.ca.gov/be/st/ss/documents/finalecacsststandards.pdf>
- California Department of Education. (2012). *English language development standards: Kindergarten through Grade 12*. Sacramento: Author. www.cde.ca.gov/statetests/eld/eld_grd_span.pdf
- California Department of Education. (2014). *California English language development standards: Kindergarten through grade 12*. Sacramento, CA: Author.
- Camartoa, S. A., & Zeigler, K. (2015). *One in five US residents speaks foreign language at home*. Washington, DC: Center for Immigration Studies.
- Camarota, S. A., & Zeigler, K. (2014). *One in five U.S. residents speaks foreign language at home, record 61.8 million*. Washington, DC: Center for Immigration Studies. Retrieved from <https://cis.org/One-Five-US-Residents-Speaks-Foreign-Language-Home-Record-618-million>
- Cameron, A. (1988). *The most beautiful place in the world*. New York: Random House.
- Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. Richards & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication*. New York: Longman.
- Cantlon, T. L. (1991). *Structuring the classroom successfully for cooperative team learning*. Portland, OR: Prestige.
- Cary, S. (2000). *Working with second language learners: Answers to teachers' top ten questions*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Casey, J. (2004). A place for first language in the ESOL classroom. *Essential Teacher*, 1(4), 50–52.
- Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain, E. (2001). *Discourse and context in language teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Chambers, J., & Parrish, T. (1992). *Meeting the challenge of diversity: An evaluation of programs for pupils with limited proficiency in English: Vol. 4. Cost of programs and services for LEP students*. Berkeley, CA: BW Associates.
- Chamot, A. U. (2009). *The CALLA handbook* (2nd ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Chaney, A. L., & Burk, T. L. (1998). *Teaching oral communication in grades K–8*. Boston: Pearson.
- Chard, D. J., Pikulski, J. J., & Templeton, S. (n.d.). *From phonemic awareness to fluency: Effective decoding instruction in a research-based reading program*. Retrieved from www.eduplace.com/state/pdf/author/chard_pik_temp.pdf
- Chen, Q., & Yan, Z. (2018). *A meta-analysis of the effects of off-task multitasking with mobile phones on learning* (poster presentation). American Educational Research Association annual meeting, New York.
- Cheng, L. (1987). English communicative competence of language minority children: Assessment and treatment of language “impaired” preschoolers. In H. Trueba (Ed.), *Success or failure? Learning and the language minority student*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Chesterfield, R., & Chesterfield, K. (1985). Natural order in children's use of second language learning strategies. *Applied Linguistics*, 6, 45–59.
- Children's Defense Fund. (2005). *The state of America's children 2017 report*. Retrieved from <http://www.childrensdefense.org/library/state-of-americas-children/>
- Cho Bassoff, T. (2004). Compleat Links: Three steps toward a strong home-school connection. *Essential Teacher*, 1(4).
- Chomsky, N. (1959). Review of B. F. Skinner “Verbal Behavior.” *Language*, 35, 26–58.

- Christensen, L. (2000). *Reading, writing, rising up: Teaching about social justice and the power of the written word*. Milwaukee, WI: Rethinking Schools.
- Chung, H. (1989). *Working with Vietnamese high school students*. San Francisco: New Faces of Liberty/SFSC.
- Cipollone, N., Keiser, S. H., & Vasishth, S. (1998). *Language files* (7th ed.). Columbus: Ohio State University Press.
- Clark, B. (1983). *Growing up gifted: Developing the potential of children at home and at school* (2nd ed.). Columbus, OH: Merrill.
- Cloud, N., Genesee, F., & Hamayan, E. (2000). *Dual language instruction*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Coehlo, E., Winer, L., & Olsen, J. W-B. (1989). *All sides of the issue: Activities for cooperative jigsaw groups*. Hayward, CA: Alemany Press.
- Cohen, E. (1994). *Designing groupwork: Strategies for the heterogeneous classroom*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Cole, M. (1998). *Cultural psychology: Can it help us think about diversity?* Presentation at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego, CA.
- Collie, J., & Slater, S. (1988). *Literature in the language classroom*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Collier, V. (1987). Age and rate of acquisition of second language for academic purposes. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21(4), 617–641.
- Cook, V. (1999). Going beyond the native speaker in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(2), 185–209.
- Cordes, K. J. (2016). Grade retention and English learners: A literature review and teacher interviews. Hamline University Digital Commons. Online at digitalcommons.hamline.edu.
- Corley, M. A. (2003). *Poverty, racism, and literacy*. ERIC Digest No. 243. ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education.
- Crago, M. (1993). Communicative interaction and second language acquisition: An Inuit example. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(3), 487–506.
- Crawford, J. (1999). *Bilingual education: History, politics, theory, and practice* (4th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Bilingual Educational Services.
- Cummins, J. (1976). The influence of bilingualism on cognitive growth: A synthesis of research findings and explanatory hypothesis. *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, 9, 1–43.
- Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research*, 49(2), 222–251.
- Cummins, J. (1981). Age on arrival and immigrant second language learning in Canada: A reassessment. *Applied Linguistics*, 2(2), 132–149.
- Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework*. Sacramento: California State Department of Education.
- Cummins, J. (1984). *Bilingualism and special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy*. San Diego, CA: College-Hill.
- Cummins, J. (1989). *Empowering minority students*. Sacramento: California Association for Bilingual Education.
- Cummins, J. (2000). Beyond adversarial discourse: Searching for common ground in the education of bilingual students. In P. McLaren & C. J. Ovando (Eds.), *The politics of multiculturalism and bilingual education* (pp. 126–147). Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Cummins, J. (2010). *Biliteracy, empowerment, and transformative pedagogy*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/241492125_Biliteracy_Empowerment_and_Transformative_Pedagogy
- Curtain, H., & Dahlberg, C. A. (2010). *Language and children—Making the match: New languages for young learners, grades K–8* (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Cushner, K. (1999). *Human diversity in action*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Dale, T., & Cuevas, G. (1992). Integrating mathematics and language learning. In P. Richard-Amato & M. Snow (Eds.), *The multicultural classroom*. White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Dale, P., & Poms, L. (2005). *English pronunciation made simple*. White Plains, NY: Pearson/Longman.
- Daloğlu, A. (2005). Reducing learning burden in academic vocabulary development. *Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages EFLIS Newsletter*, 5(1).
- Darder, A. (1991). *Culture and power in the classroom*. New York: Bergin and Garvey.
- Day, F. A. (1994). *Multicultural voices in contemporary literature: A resource for teachers*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Day, F. A. (1997). *Latina and Latino voices in literature for children and teenagers*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Day, F. A. (2003). *Latina and Latino voices in literature: Lives and works*. Westport, CT: Greenwood.
- de Boinod, A. J. (2006). *The meaning of tingo*. New York: Penguin.
- Delgado-Gaitan, C., & Trueba, H. (1991). *Crossing cultural borders: Education for immigrant families in America*. London: Falmer Press.
- dePaola, T. (1981). *Now one foot, now the other*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
- deUnamuno, M. (1925). *Essays and soliloquies*. New York: Knopf.
- Diamond, B., & Moore, M. (1995). *Multicultural literacy*. White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Díaz-Rico, L. T. (2013). *Teaching English learners: Strategies and methods* (3rd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Díaz-Rico, L. T., & Weed, K. Z. (2010). *Crosscultural, language, and academic development handbook* (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Donato, R. (1997). *The other struggle for equal schools: Mexican Americans during the Civil Rights Era*. New York: State University of New York Press.
- Dufour, R. (2016). *ESSA: An opportunity for American education*. Solution Tree.
- Dumont, R. (1972). Learning English and how to be silent: Studies in Sioux and Cherokee classrooms. In C. Cazden, V. John, & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Functions of language in the classroom*. New York: Teachers College Press.

- Echevarría, J., & Graves, A. (2011). *Sheltered content instruction: Teaching English learners with diverse abilities* (4th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Echevarría, J., Vogt, M. E., & Short, D. (2016). *Making content comprehensible for English language learners: The SIOP model* (5th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Egan, K., & Gajdamaschko, N. (2003). Some cognitive tools of literacy. In A. Kozulin, B. Gindis, V. S. Ageyev, & S. M. Miller (Eds.), *Vygotsky's educational theory in cultural context* (pp. 83–98). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, S. S., & Whalen, S. F. (1992). Keys to cooperative learning: 35 ways to keep kids responsible, challenged, and most of all, cooperative. *Instructor*, 101(6), 34–37.
- Emmorey, K., Giezen, M. R., & Gollan, T. H. (2016). Psycholinguistic, cognitive and neural implications of bimodal bilingualism. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 19(2), 223–242.
- Erickson, F. (1977). Some approaches to inquiry in school-community ethnography. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 8(2), 58–69.
- Ernst-Slavit, G., & Mason, M. (n.d.). *Making your fist ELL home visit: A guide for classroom teachers*. Online at <http://www.colorincolorado.org/article/making-your-first-ell-home-visit-guide-classroom-teachers>
- Escalante, J., & Dirmann, J. (1990). The Jaime Escalante math program. *Journal of Negro Education*, 59(3), 407–423.
- Ewert, S. (2015). U. S. population trends, 2000 to 2060. Washington, DC: United States Census Bureau.
- Faltis, C. (1993). Critical issues in the use of sheltered content instruction in high school bilingual programs. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 69(1), 136–151.
- Faltis, C. J. (2001). *Joinfostering* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Feng, J. (1994). *Asian-American children: What teachers should know*. ERIC Digest ED369577.
- Figueroa, A. (2004). Speaking Spanglish. In O. S. Ana (Ed.), *Tongue-tied: The lives of multicultural children in public education* (pp. 284–286). New York: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Fisher, D., & Frey, N. (2009). *Background knowledge: The missing piece of the comprehension puzzle*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Fisher, D., Brozo, W. G., Frey, N., & Ivey, G. (2007). *50 content area strategies for adolescent literacy*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
- Floracruz, M. (2013). Chinese speakers in US jump 460 percent in 30 years. IBT Times. Online at www.ibttimes.com/chinese-speakers-us-jump-360-percent-30-years-1379759
- Flores, López, & Radford, (2017). Facts on US Latinos, 2015: Statistical portrait of Hispanics in the United States. Pew Research Center. Online at <http://www.pewhispanic.org/2017/09/18/facts-on-u-s-latinos-trend-data/>
- Flynt, E. S., & Cooter, R. B. (1999). *The English-Español reading inventory for the classroom*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
- Folse, K. S. (1996). *Discussion starters*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Folse, K. S. (2006). *The art of teaching speaking*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Foucault, M. (1979). *Discipline and punish: The birth of the prison*. New York: Vintage Books.
- Frazier, I. (2008, 26 May). Hungry minds: Tales from a Chelsea soup kitchen. *The New Yorker*, 56–65.
- Fraser, N., & Nicholson, L. (1988). Social criticism without philosophy: An encounter between feminism and postmodernism. In A. Ross (Ed.), *Universal abandon? The politics of postmodernism* (pp. 83–94). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Fredericks, A. D., & Rasinski, T. V. (1990). Increasing parental involvement: A key to student achievement. *The Reading Teacher*, 43(6), 424–425.
- Friedman, E. K. (2010). Secondary prevention in an RTI model: A step toward academic recovery. *The Reading Teacher*, 64(3), 207–210.
- Friend, M., & Bursuck, W. D. (2011). *Including students with special needs: A practical guide for classroom teachers*. Boston: Pearson.
- Fu, D. (2004). Teaching ELL students in regular classrooms at the secondary level. *Voices from the Middle*, 11(4), 8–15.
- Fu, D. (2009). *Writing between languages: How English language learners make the transition to fluency*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L. S., & Stecker, P. M. (2010). The “blurring” of special education in a new continuum of general education placements and services. *Exceptional Children*, 76(3), 301–323.
- Fuller, B. (2003). Educational policy under cultural pluralism. *Educational Researcher*, 32(9), 15–24.
- Funaki, I., & Burnett, K. (1993). *When educational systems collide: Teaching and learning with Polynesian students*. Presentation at the Association of Teacher Educators annual conference, Los Angeles.
- Furey, P. (1986). A framework for cross-cultural analysis of teaching methods. In P. Byrd (Ed.), *Teaching across cultures in the university ESL program*. Washington, DC: National Association of Foreign Student Advisors.
- Gamrel, L. B., & Bales, R. J. (1986). Mental imagery and the comprehension-monitoring performance of fourth- and fifth-grade poor readers. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21, 454–464.
- Gándara, P. (1997). *Review of research on instruction of limited English proficient students*. Davis, CA: University of California, Linguistic Minority Research Institute.
- Gadelha, R. (2017). Get real, teacher! *Language Magazine*, 16(10), 28–29.
- García, O. (2009). Emergent bilinguals and TESOL: What's in a name? *TESOL Quarterly*, 43(2), 322–326.
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Gardner, R., & Lambert, W. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gascoigne, C. (2002). *The debate on grammar in second language acquisition: Past, present, and future*. Lewiston, NY: Edwin Mellen Press.

- Gay, G. (1975, October). Cultural differences important in education of Black children. *Momentum*, 30–32.
- Georgakopoulos, A., & Guerrero, L. K. (2010). Student perceptions of teachers' nonverbal and verbal communication: A comparison of best and worst professors across six cultures. *International Education Studies*, 3(2), 3–16.
- Gersten, R., & Baker, S. (2000). What we know about effective instructional practices for English-language learners. *Exceptional Children*, 66(4), 454–470.
- Gillen, J. (2003). *The language of children*. London/New York: Routledge.
- Giroux, H. (1983). Theories of reproduction and resistance in the new sociology of education: A critical appraisal. *Harvard Educational Review*, 53, 257–293.
- Goldenberg, C., & Gallimore, R. (1991). Changing teaching takes more than a one-shot workshop. *Educational Leadership*, 49(3), 69–72.
- Gollnick, D. M., & Chinn, P. C. (2016). *Multicultural education in a pluralistic society* (10th ed.). New York: Pearson.
- Gollnick, D. M., & Chinn, P. C. (2013). *Multicultural education in a pluralistic society* (9th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- González, N. E., Moll, L., & Amanti, C. (Eds.). (2005). *Funds of knowledge: Theorizing practices in households, communities, and classrooms*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Good, T., & Brophy, J. (2008). *Looking in classrooms* (10th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Goodman, K. (1986). *What's whole in whole language?* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Goodwin, J., Brinton, D., & Celce-Murcia, M. (1994). Pronunciation assessment in the ESL/EFL curriculum. In J. Morley (Ed.), *Pronunciation pedagogy theory: New views, new directions*. Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).
- Gopaul-McNicol, S., & Thomas-Presswood, T. (1998). *Working with linguistically and culturally different children*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gottlieb, M. (1995). Nurturing student learning through portfolios. *TESOL Journal*, 5(1), 12–14.
- Graham, C. (1988). *Jazz chant fairy tales*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Graham, C. (1992). *Singing, chanting, telling tales*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Regents/Prentice Hall.
- Graham, K. (1983). *The wind in the willows*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Gregory, G. (2003). *Differentiating instructional strategies in practice: Training, implementation, and supervision*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Gregory, G. H., & Kuzmich, L. (2005). *Differentiated literacy strategies for student growth and achievement in grades 7–12*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Grognet, A., Jameson, J., Franco, L., & Derrick-Mescua, M. (2000). *Enhancing English language learning in elementary classrooms study guide*. McHenry, IL: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems.
- Grossberg, L. (1988). Putting the pop back into postmodernism. In A. Ross (Ed.), *Universal abandon? The politics of postmodernism* (pp. 167–190). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Gunning, T. G. (2005). *Creating literacy: Instruction for all students* (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. (2002). Engagement and motivation in reading. In M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 3, pp. 403–422). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Gutiérrez, A. S., & Rodríguez, A. P. (2005). *Latino student success (K–20): Local community culture and context*. Spring 2005 Colloquium of the Maryland Institute for Minority Achievement and Urban Education, Baltimore.
- Hadaway, N. L., Vardell, S. M., & Young, T. A. (2002). *Literature-based instruction with English language learners, K–12*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Hafernik, J. J., Messerschmitt, D. S., & Vandrick, S. (2002). *Ethical issues for ESL faculty*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Hakuta, K. (1986). *Mirror of language*. New York: Basic Books.
- Hakuta, K., Butler, Y. G., & Witt, D. (2000). *How long does it take English learners to attain proficiency? Policy Report 2000–1*. Santa Barbara: University of California Linguistic Minority Research Institute.
- Haley, M. H. (2010). *Brain-compatible differentiated instruction for English language learners*. Boston: Pearson.
- Hall, E. (1959). *The silent language*. New York: Anchor Books.
- Halliday, M. (1975). *Learning how to mean: Explorations in the development of language*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. (1978). *Language as a social semiotic*. Baltimore, MD: University Park Press.
- Hamayan, E. (1994). Language development of low-literacy students. In F. Genesee (Ed.), *Educating second language children*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Hamayan, E., Genesee, F., & Cloud, N. (2013). *Dual language instruction from A to Z: Practical guidance for teachers and administrators*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Harris, T. L., & Hodges, R. E. (1995). *The literacy dictionary: The vocabulary of reading and writing*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Harris, V. (1997). *Teaching multicultural literature in grades K–8*. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon.
- Hatfield, M. M., Edwards, M. T., Bitter, G., & Morrow, J. (2004). *Mathematics methods for elementary and middle school teachers*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hayasaki, E. (2004, December 3). Cultural divide on campus. *Los Angeles Times*, A1, A36, A37.
- Haycock, K., Jerald, C., & Huang, S. (2001). *Thinking K–16, closing the gap: Done in a decade*. Washington, DC: The Education Trust.

- Heath, S. B. (1999). *Ways with words: Language, life and work in communities and classrooms* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Heide, F., & Gilliland, J. (1990). *The day of Ahmed's secret*. New York: Lothrop, Lee, & Shepard.
- Heilman, A. W. (2002). *Phonics in proper perspective*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Heinle & Heinle. (2002). *Launch into reading, Level I: Teacher's resource book*. Boston: Author.
- Henderson, D., & May, J. (2005). *Exploring culturally diverse literature for children and adolescents*. Boston: Pearson.
- Henwood, D. (1997). Trash-o-nomics. In M. Wray, M. Newitz, & A. Newitz (Eds.), *White trash: Race and class in America* (pp. 177–191). New York and London: Routledge.
- Herrera, S. G., Murry, K. G., & Cabral, R. M. (2007). *Assessment accommodations for classroom teachers of culturally and linguistically diverse students*. Boston: Pearson.
- Herrera, S. G., Perez, D. R., & Escamilla, K. (2010). *Teaching reading to English language learners: Differentiated literacies*. Boston: Pearson.
- Hetherington, G. (1999). Headline news. In N. Shameem & M. Tickoo (Eds.), *New ways in using communicative games* (pp. 67–68). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).
- Hicks, T. (2009). *The digital writing workshop*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Hinojosa, R., Robles-Piña, R. A., & Edmondson, S. (2009). Gender differences in placement, support, and participation in early school programs for urban Hispanic students in advanced placement courses. *Advancing Women in Leadership Journal*, 29(8), 1–11.
- Hispanic Dropout Project. (1998). *No more excuses: The final report of the Hispanic Dropout Project*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of the Under Secretary. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?q=Hispanic+Dropout+Project.+> (1998).+No+more+excuses%3a+The+final+report+of+the+Hispanic+Dropout+Project.+&pg=2&id=ED461447
- Hopkinson, A. (2017, January 6). A new era for bilingual education: Explaining California's Proposition 58. *EdSource*. Retrieved from <https://edsource.org/2017/a-new-era-for-bilingual-education-explaining-californias-proposition-58/574852>
- Hornberger, N. H., & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging in today's classrooms: A biliteracy lens. *Theory into Practice*, 51(4), 239–247.
- Horwitz, E., Horwitz, M., & Cope, J. (1991). Foreign language classroom anxiety. In E. Horwitz & D. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 27–36). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Houston, G. (2004). *How writing works*. Boston: Pearson.
- Huntley, H. (2006). *Essential academic vocabulary: Mastering the complete academic word list*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin.
- Irujo, S. (1998). *Teaching bilingual children: Beliefs and behaviors*. Cambridge, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- International Reading Association. (1997). *The role of phonics in reading instruction: A position statement of the International Reading Association*. Newark, DE: Author.
- Irvine, J. J. (1990). *Black students and school failure*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Jametz, K. (1994). Making sure that assessment improves performance. *Educational Leadership*, 51(6), 55–57.
- Jenks, C., Lee, J. O., & Kanpol, B. (2002). Approaches to multicultural education in preservice teacher education: Philosophical frameworks and models for teaching. In F. Schultz (Ed.), *Annual editions: Multicultural education 2002–2003* (pp. 20–28). Guilford, CT: McGraw-Hill/Dushkin.
- Jiménez, R. T. (2003). Literacy and Latino students in the United States: Some considerations, questions, and new directions. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 38(1), 122–128.
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. (1994). Cooperative learning in second language classes. *The Language Teacher*, 18, 4–7.
- Jones, L. (2007). *The student-centered classroom*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Jones, L. T. (1991). *Strategies for involving parents in their children's education*. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- Kagan, S. (1998). *Cooperative learning smart card*. Kagan Cooperative Learning. Retrieved from www.kaganonline.com/catalog/SmartCards.php#TTB
- Kagan, S. (1999). *Teambuilding smart card*. Kagan Cooperative Learning. Retrieved from www.kaganonline.com/catalog/SmartCards.php#TTB
- Kame'enui, E. J., & Simmons, D. C. (2000). *Planning and evaluation tool for effective schoolwide reading programs*. Eugene, OR: Institute for the Development of Educational Achievement.
- Kang, H. W., Kuehn, P., & Herrell, A. (1996). The Hmong literacy project: Parents working to preserve the past and ensure the future. Retrieved from https://ncela.ed.gov/files/rcd/BE021503/The_Hmong_Literacy_Project.pdf
- Kea, C., Campbell-Whatley, G. D., & Richards, H. V. (2004). *Becoming culturally responsive educators: Rethinking teacher education pedagogy*. National Center for Culturally Responsive Educational Systems. Retrieved from <http://equityallianceatlasu.org/node/219>
- Kealey, J., & Inness, D. (1997). *Shenanigames: Grammar-focused interactive ESL/EFL activities and games*. Brattleboro, VT: Prolingua.
- Kluge, D. (1999). *A brief introduction to cooperative learning*. ERIC Document Service (www.eric.ed.gov, ED437840).
- Knobel, M., & Lankshear, C. (2006). Profiles and perspective: Discussing new literacies. *Language Arts*, 84(1), 78–86.

- Koball, H., & Jiang, Y. (2018). *Basic facts about low-income children*. Washington, DC: National Center for Children in Poverty. www.nccp.org/publications/pub_1194.html
- Kohli, S. (2017, April 12). California and L.A. Unified graduation rates continue to increase. Los Angeles Times. Retrieved from www.latimes.com/local/education/la-me-edu-state-graduation-rates-20170412-story.html
- Krashen, S. (1981). Bilingual education and second language acquisition theory. In *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework*. Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford, UK: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. New York: Longman.
- Kress, G. (2000). *Early spelling: Between convention and creativity*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Laufer, B., & Paribakht, S. (1998). The relationship between passive and active vocabularies: Effects of language learning contexts. *Language Learning*, 48, 365–391.
- Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Laufer, B. (1989). What percentage of text-lexis is essential for comprehension? In C. Lauren & M. Nordman (Eds.), *Special language: From humans thinking to thinking machines* (pp. 316–323). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Lawton, R. (2013). Speak English or go home: The anti-immigrant discourse of the American “English Only” movement. *Critical Approaches to Discourse Analysis Across Disciplines*, 7(1), 100–122. Retrieved from <http://cadaad.net/journal>
- Learning English (2017). *Asian Americans are a fast-growing, diverse group*. Online at <https://learningenglish.voanews.com/a/asian-americans-are-a-fast-growing-but-diverse-group-trump/4030353.html>
- Leathers, N. (1967). *The Japanese in America*. Minneapolis, MN: Lerner Publications.
- LeBeau, C., & Harrington, D. (2003). *Getting ready for speech*. Medford, OR: Language Solutions.
- LeCompte, M. (1981). The Procrustean bed: Public schools, management systems, and minority students. In H. Trueba, G. Guthrie, & K. Au (Eds.), *Culture and the bilingual classroom: Studies in classroom ethnography*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Lee, B. J. (2001). Cat and his pals. In McGraw-Hill reading: *Phonics practice reader 1*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Lee, E. Y. (1988). Working effectively with Asian immigrant parents. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 70(3), 223–225.
- Lee, O. (2005). Science education with English language learners: Synthesis and research agenda. *Review of Educational Research*, 75(4), 491–530.
- Leistyna, P., Woodrum, A., & Sherblom, S. A. (Eds.). (1996). *Breaking free: The transformative power of critical pedagogy*. Cambridge, MA: *Harvard Educational Review*. (Reprint Series No. 27).
- Lemberger, N. (1999). Factors affecting language development from the perspectives of four bilingual teachers. In I. Heath & C. Serrano (Eds.), *Annual editions: Teaching English as a second language* (2nd ed.). Guilford, CT: Dushkin/McGraw-Hill.
- Lenneberg, E. (1967). *Biological foundations of language*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Levine, L. N. (2000). The most beautiful place in the world. In K. D. Samway (Ed.), *Integrating the ESL standards into classroom practice: Grades 3–5* (pp. 109–131). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).
- Levtik, L. S., & Barton, K. C. (2001). *Doing history: Investigating with children in elementary and middle schools* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Lindholm, K. (1994). Promoting positive cross-cultural attitudes and perceived competence in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms. In R. A. DeVillar, C. Faltis, & J. Cummins (Eds.), *Cultural diversity in schools: From rhetoric to practice* (pp. 189–206). Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Lindholm-Leary, K. (2000). *Biliteracy for a global society: An idea book on dual language education*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.
- Linn, R. L. (2000). Assessments and accountability. *Educational Researcher*, 29(2), 4–26.
- Linn, R. L., & Miller, M. D. (2005). *Measurement and assessment in teaching* (9th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Linse, C. (2006). Using favorite songs and poems with young learners. *English Teaching Forum*, 44(2), 38–40.
- Lippi-Green, R. (1997). *English with an accent*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Lockwood, A. T., & Secada, W. G. (1998). *Transforming Education for Hispanic youth: Exemplary practices, programs, and schools*. NCBE Resource Collection Series No. 12. Retrieved from www.researchgate.net
- Long, M. (1980). Input, interaction, and language acquisition. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.
- Lu, M. L. (2000). *Language development in the early years* (ERIC, Digest No. 154). Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse.
- Lucas, T., & Katz, A. (1994). Reframing the debate: The roles of native languages in English-only programs for language minority students. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(3), 537–561.
- Mahoney, D. (1999). Stress clapping. In N. Shameem & M. Tickoo (Eds.), *New ways in using communicative games* (pp. 20–21). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).
- Mandlebaum, L. H., & Wilson, R. (1989). Teaching listening skills in the special education classroom. *Academic Therapy*, 24, 451–452.
- Mammina, A. (2017, September 4). Teaching the art of listening: How to use podcasts in the classroom. *Education Week*, n.p.

- Manning, M. L. (2002). Understanding diversity, accepting others: Realities and directions. In F. Schultz, (Ed.), *Annual editions: Multicultural education 2002/2003*. Guilford, CT: McGraw-Hill/Dushkin.
- Mansour, W. (1999). Give me a word that . . . In N. Shameem & M. Tickoo (Eds.), *New ways in using communicative games* (pp. 103–104). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).
- Marinova-Todd, S., Marshall, D., & Snow, C. (2000). Three misconceptions about age and L2 learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(1), 9–34.
- Mather, M. (2016). *Trends and challenges facing America's Latino children*. Population Reference Bureau. Online at www.prb.org/Publications/Articles/2016/trends-and-challenges-facing-americas-latino-children.aspx
- Matthews, C. (1994). *Speaking solutions*. White Plains, NY: Longman.
- May, F. B., & Rizzardi, L. (2002). *Reading as communication* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- May, S. (2001). *Language and minority rights: Ethnicity, nationalism and the politics of language*. Harlow, UK: Longman.
- McCarten, J. (2007). *Teaching vocabulary: Lessons from the corpus, lessons for the classroom*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- McCarty, T. L. (Ed.). (2005). *Language, literacy, and power in schooling*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- McKenna, M. C., & Robinson, R. D. (1997). *Teaching through text: A content literacy approach to content area reading* (2nd ed.). New York: Longman.
- McLaren, P. (1995). Critical multiculturalism, media literacy, and the politics of representation. In J. Frederickson (Ed.), *Reclaiming our voices: Bilingual education, critical pedagogy, and praxis* (pp. 99–138). Ontario, CA: California Association for Bilingual Education.
- McLeod, B. (1995). *School reform and student diversity: Exemplary school for language minority students*. NCBE Resource Collection Series No. 4. ERIC 392268.
- Mehan, H. (1981). Ethnography of bilingual education. In H. Trueba, G. Guthrie, & K. Au (Eds.), *Culture and the bilingual classroom: Studies in classroom ethnography*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Mehrabian, A. (1968). Communication without words. *Psychology Today*, 2(9), 52–55.
- Migration Policy Institute. (2018). *Immigrant population by country of birth, 2000 to 2016*. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved from www.migrationpolicy.org/programs/date-hub/us-immigration-trend#source
- Miller, G. (1985). Nonverbal communication. In V. Clark, P. Eschholz, & A. Rosa (Eds.), *Language: Introductory readings* (4th ed.). New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Miller, L. (2004). *Developing listening skills with authentic materials*. Retrieved from www.eslmag.com/modules.php?name=News&file=article&sid=20
- Molina, H., Hanson, R. A., & Siegel, D. F. (1997). *Empowering the second-language classroom: Putting the parts together*. San Francisco: Caddo Gap Press.
- Mora, J. K. (2000). Staying the course in times of change: Preparing teachers for linguistically diverse classrooms. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 51(5), 345–357.
- Morey, A., & Kilano, M. (1997). *Multicultural course transformation in higher education: A broader truth*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Morgan, R. (1992). Distinctive voices—Developing oral language in multilingual classrooms. In P. Pinsent (Ed.), *Language, culture, and young children* (pp. 37–46). London: David Fulton.
- Moskowitz, G. (1978). *Caring and sharing in the foreign language classroom*. Cambridge, MA: Newbury House.
- Musu-Gillette, L., Robinson, J., McFarland, J., KewalRamani, A., Zhang, A., & Wilkinson-Flicker, S. (2016). *Status and trends in the education of racial and ethnic groups 2016*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). Retrieved from <https://nces.ed.gov/pubs/2016/2016007.pdf>
- Nakanishi, D., & Nishida, T. Y. (2014). *The Asian American educational experience: A sourcebook for teachers and students*. New York/London: Routledge.
- Nation, I. S. P. (1990). *Teaching and learning vocabulary*. New York: Newbury House.
- National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES] (2017a). *English language learners in public schools*. Washington, DC: Author. Online at https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_cgf.asp
- National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). (2017b). *Racial/ethnic enrollment in public schools*. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_cge.asp
- National Education Association. (1975). *Code of ethics of the education profession*. Washington, DC: Author.
- NCELA. (2017). Office of English Language Acquisition (OELA) (2017). *Profiles of English learners (ELs)*. Washington: Author. Online at www.ncela.us/files/fast_facts/05-19-2017/ProfilesOfELs_FastFacts.pdf
- Nero, S. J. (1997). English is my native language . . . or so I believe. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(3), 585–593.
- Nieto, S. (2007). *Affirming diversity* (5th ed.). New York: Longman.
- Nieto, S., & Bode, P. (2011). *Affirming diversity* (6th ed.). New York: Longman.
- O'Barr, W. M., & Atkins, B. K. (1980). Women's language or powerless language. In S. McConnell-Ginet, R. Borker, & N. Furman (Eds.), *Women and language in literature and society* (pp. 93–110). New York: Praeger.
- O'Malley, J. M., & Pierce, L. V. (1996). *Authentic assessment for English language learners*. Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley.
- Oakes, J. (1992). Can tracking research inform practice? Technical, normative, and political considerations. *Educational Researcher*, 21(4), 12–21.

- Ogbu, J. (1978). *Minority education and caste: The American system in crosscultural perspective*. New York: Academic Press.
- Ogbu, J., & Matute-Bianchi, M. (1986). Understanding sociocultural factors: Knowledge, identity, and school adjustment. In Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles (Ed.), *Beyond language: Social and cultural factors in schooling language minority students*. Los Angeles: Author.
- Olmedo, I. M. (1993, Summer). Junior historians: Doing oral history with ESL and bilingual students. *TESOL Journal*, 2(4), 7–9.
- Orfield, T., & Lee, C. (2005). *Why segregation matters: Poverty and educational inequality*. Retrieved from www.civilrightsproject.harvard.edu/research/deseg/deseg05.php
- Orfield, T., & Lee, C. (2005). *Why segregation matters: Poverty and educational inequality*. Retrieved from www.gse.harvard.edu/news/new-national-study-finds-increasing-school-segregation
- Ortiz, A. A. (2002). Prevention of school failure and early intervention for English language learners. In A. J. Artiles & A. A. Ortiz (Eds.), *English language learners with special education needs: Identification, assessment, and instruction* (pp. 31–63). Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems.
- Oshima, A., & Hogue, A. (2006). *Writing academic English* (4th ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Longman.
- Ostroff, C. (2017). *Schools throughout the country are grappling with teacher shortage, data show*. CNN. Online at www.cnn.com/2017/08/21/health/teacher-shortage-data-trnd/index.html
- Ouk, M., Huffman, F., & Lewis, J. (1988). *Handbook for teaching Khmer-speaking students*. Sacramento, CA: Spilman.
- Ovando, C., & Collier, V. (1998). *Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching in multicultural contexts*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Oxford English Living Dictionaries. (2017). *How many words are there in the English language?* Retrieved from <https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/explore/how-many-words-are-there-in-the-english-language>
- Oyama, S. (1976). A sensitive period for the acquisition of non-native phonological system. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 5, 261–284.
- Packer, N. (2006). *Writing worth reading: The critical process*. London: Macmillan Higher Education.
- Paige, R. M. (1999). Theoretical foundations of intercultural training and applications to the teaching of culture. In R. M. Paige, D. L. Lange, & Y. A. Yershova (Eds.), *Culture as the core: Integrating culture into the language curriculum* (pp. 21–29). Minneapolis: Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition, University of Minnesota.
- Palinscar, A. S., & Brown, A. L. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, 1, 117–175.
- Panzer, J. (2014). It's official: Latinos now outnumber whites in California. *Los Angeles Times*. Online at www.latimes.com/local/california/la-me-census-latinos-20150708-story.html
- Pearson, R. (1974). *Introduction to anthropology*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Peim, N. (1993). *Critical theory and the English teacher*. London: Routledge.
- Peregoy, S., & Boyle, O. (2016). *Reading, writing, and learning in ESL: A resource book for teaching K–12 English learners* (7th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Pew Research Center, Hispanic Trends. *Demographic profile of Hispanics in Texas, 2014*. Online at www.pewhispanic.org/states/state/tx/
- Philips, S. (1972). Participant structures and communicative competence: Warm Springs children in community and classroom. In C. Cazden, V. John, & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Functions of language in the classroom*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Phillips, J. (1978). College of, by and for Navajo Indians. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 15, 10–12.
- Phipps, R. (2010). When test prep goes too far. *Language*, 9(8), 19.
- Pillars, W. (2017). A quick-start guide for teaching English-language learners. *Education Week Teacher*. Online at <http://www.edweek.org/tm/articles/2017/09/06/a-quick-start-guide-for-teaching-english-language-learners.html>
- Pinnell, G. S. (1985). Ways to look at the functions of children's language. In A. Jaggar & M. Smith-Burke (Eds.), *Observing the language learner*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Porter, R. (1990). *Forked tongue: The politics of bilingual education*. New York: Basic Books.
- Porter, C. (2010). English is not enough. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 56(32), 64.
- Pratt, C., & Nesdale, A. R. (1984). Pragmatic awareness in children. In W. E. Tunmer, C. Pratt, & M. L. Herriman (Eds.), *Metalinguistic awareness in children* (pp. 105–125). Berlin: Springer Verlag.
- Pridham, F. (2001). *The language of conversation*. New York and London: Routledge.
- Pruitt, W. (2000). Using story to compare, conclude, and identify. In B. Agor (Ed.), *Integrating the ESL standards into classroom practice: Grades 9–12* (pp. 31–49). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).
- Pryor, C. B. (2002). New immigrants and refugees in American schools: Multiple voices. In F. Schultz (Ed.), *Annual editions: Multicultural education 2002/2003* (pp. 185–193). Guilford, CT: McGraw-Hill/Dushkin.
- Quiocho, A. L., & Ulanoff, S. H. (2009). *Differentiated literacy instruction for English language learners*. Boston: Pearson.
- Raimes, A. (Ed.). (1996). *Identities: Readings from contemporary culture*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Ramírez, J. (1992). Executive summary, final report: Longitudinal study of structured English immersion strategy, early-exit and late-exit transitional bilingual education programs for language-minority children. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 16(1&2), 1–62.

- Raphael, T. E. (1986). Teaching question answer relationships, revisited. *The Reading Teacher*, 39, 516–523.
- Redish, L. (2001). *Native languages of the Americas: Endangered language revitalization and revival*. Retrieved from www.native-languages.org/revive.htm
- Remillar, J. T., & Cahnmann, M. (2005). Researching mathematics teaching in bilingual-bicultural classrooms. In T. L. McCarty (Ed.), *Language, literacy, and power in schooling* (pp. 169–187). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Richards, J. C. (2008). *Moving beyond the plateau: From intermediate to advanced levels in language learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Riles, G. B., & Lenarcic, C. (2000). Exploring world religions. In B. Agor (Ed.), *Integrating the ESL standards into classroom practice: Grades 9–12* (pp. 1–29). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).
- Rivera, C. (2006, June 9). *Charter school fights back*. Los Angeles Times. Retrieved from www.latimes.com/news/local/lame-charter9jun09,1,4660030.story?ctrack=1&cset=true
- Robinson, G. (1985). *Crosscultural understanding*. New York: Pergamon Institute of English.
- Rodby, J. (1999). Contingent literacy: The social construction of writing for nonnative English-speaking college freshman. In L. Harklau, K. M. Losey, & M. Siegal (Eds.), *Generation 1.5 meets college composition: Issues in the teaching of writing to U.S.-educated learners of ESL* (pp. 45–60). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Rowan, T., & Bourne, B. (1994). *Thinking like mathematics*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Ruiz Soto, A. G., Hooker, S., & Batalova, B. (2015a). *States and districts with the highest number and share of English language learners*. Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute.
- Ruiz Soto, A. G., Hooker, S., & Batalova, J. (2015b). *Top languages spoken by English language learners nationally and by state*. Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute.
- Rumbaut, R. G. (1995). The new Californians: Comparative research findings on the education progress of immigrant children. In R. G. Rumbaut & W. A. Cornelius (Eds.), *California's immigrant children: Theory, research, and implications for educational policy* (pp. 17–70). San Diego: University of California, San Diego Center for U.S.-Mexican Studies.
- Runner, J. (2000). "I don't understand" in over 230 languages. Retrieved from www.elite.net/~runner/jennifers/understa.htm
- Ryan, C. L., & Bauman, K. (2016). *Educational attainment in the United States: 2015*. Washington, DC: U.S. Census Bureau.
- Sales, F. (1989). *Ibrahim*. New York: Lippincott.
- Samuels, C. A. (2016, February 23). ESSA spotlights strategy to reach diverse learners. *Education Week*, 1.
- Santa Ana, O. (2004). Giving voice to the silenced. *Language*, 3(8), 15–17.
- Sato, C. (1982). Ethnic styles in classroom discourse. In M. Hines and W. Rutherford (Eds.), *On TESOL '81*. Washington, DC: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).
- Saunders, W. M., Foorman, B. R., & Carlson, C. D. (2006). Is a separate block of time for oral English language development in programs for English learners needed? *The Elementary School Journal*, 107(2), 181–198.
- Savage, K. L., Bitterlin, G., & Price, D. (2010). *Grammar matters: Teaching grammar in adult ESL programs*. New York: Cambridge Press.
- Scarcella, R., & Rumberger, R. W. (2000). Academic English key to long-term success in school. *University of California Linguistic Minority Research Institute Newsletter*, 9(4), 1–2.
- Schumann, J. (1978). The acculturation model for second-language acquisition. In R. Gringas (Ed.), *Second language acquisition and foreign language teaching*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Scrivener, J. (2005). *Learning teaching: The essential guide to English language teaching*. Oxford, UK: Macmillan.
- Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching (IRAL)*, 10(3), 209–231.
- Selinker, L. (1991). Along the way: Interlanguage systems in second language acquisition. In L. Malavé & G. Duquette (Eds.), *Language, culture and cognition*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Shaffer, D. R. (1999). *Developmental psychology: Childhood & adolescence* (5th ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks Cole.
- Sholley, D. (2006, July 20). Two cultures, one unique talent. *The Sun-San Bernardino County*, U1–U2.
- Short, D. J., & Boyson, B. A. (2004). *Creating access: Language and academic programs for secondary school newcomers*. Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence.
- Short, D. J., Vogt, M., & Echevarría, J. (2011). *The SIOP model for teaching science to English learners*. Boston: Pearson.
- Siccone, F. (1995). *Celebrating diversity: Building self-esteem in today's multicultural classrooms*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Siebens, J., & Julian, T. (2011). *Native North American languages spoken at home in the United States and Puerto Rico: 2006–2010*. Washington, DC: U.S. Census Bureau.
- SIL International. (2017). *Ethnologue*. Retrieved from <https://www.ethnologue.com/guides/how-many-languages>
- Sindell, P. (1988). Some discontinuities in the enculturation of Mistassini Cree children. In J. Wurzel (Ed.), *Toward multiculturalism*. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.
- Singleton, D. M., & Ryan, L. (2004). *Language acquisition: The age factor*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1981). *Bilingualism or not: The education of minorities* (L. Malmberg & D. Crane, Trans.). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Smagorinsky, P. (2008). *Teaching English by design*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

- Smith, S. L., Paige, R. M., & Steglitz, I. (1998). Theoretical foundations of intercultural training and applications to the teaching of culture. In D. L. Lange, C. A. Klee, R. M. Paige, & Y. A. Yershova (Eds.), *Culture as the core: Interdisciplinary perspectives on culture teaching and learning in the language curriculum* (pp. 53–91). Minneapolis: Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition, University of Minnesota.
- Smith, F. (1983). *Essays into literacy*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Smith, T. E. C., Polloway, E. A., Patton, J. R., & Dowdy, C. A. (2003). *Teaching children with special needs in inclusive settings* (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Snow, C., & Hoefnagel-Hoehle, M. (1978). The critical period for language acquisition: Evidence from second language learning. *Child Development*, 49, 1114–1118.
- Snow, D. (1996). *More than a native speaker*. Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).
- Sousa, D. A. (2006). *How the brain learns* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Southern Poverty Law Center. (2018). *The current state of sanctuary law*. Montgomery, AL: Author. Retrieved from <https://www.splcenter.org/20180308/current-state-sanctuary-law>
- Spears, R. A. (1992). *Common American phrases*. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Spears, R. A. (2012). *Common American phrases* (3rd ed.). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook.
- Spellmeyer, K. (1989). A common ground: The essay in the academy. *College English*, 51, 262–276.
- Spinelli, E. (1994). *English grammar for students of Spanish* (3rd ed.). Ann Arbor, MI: Olivia and Hill Press.
- Stahl, N. A., King, J. R., & Henk, W. A. (1991). Enhancing students' notetaking through training and evaluation. *Journal of Reading*, 34(8), 614–622.
- Stanch, W. (2018, March 14). School segregation is not a myth. *The Atlantic*. Retrieved from www.theatlantic.com/education/archive/2018/03/school-segregation-is-not-a-myth/555614/
- Suid, M., & Lincoln, W. (1992). *Ten-minute whole language warm-ups*. Palo Alto, CA: Monday Morning Books.
- Suina, J. (2011). *Joseph Henry Suina: Cochiti, N. Mexico* (interview by A. Tobier). Retrieved from www.ndsg.org/jsuina/index.html
- Sunal, C. S., & Haas, M. E. (2005). *Social studies for elementary and middle grades: A constructivist approach*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Suresh, B. (2003). Get 'em hooked on books—Start an ESL book club. *CATESOL News*, 30(2), 14.
- Suzuki, B. (1989, November/December). Asian Americans as the “model minority.” *Change*, 21, 12–19.
- Swartz, S. L., Shook, R. E., Klein, A. F., Moon, C., Bunnell, K., Belt, M., & Huntley, C. (2003). *Guided reading and literacy centers*. Carlsbad, CA: Dominie Press.
- Takahashi, E., Austin, T., & Morimoto, Y. (2000). Social interaction and language development in an FLES classroom. In J. K. Hall & L. S. Verplaetse (Eds.), *Second and foreign language learning through classroom interaction* (pp. 139–162). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Takayama, B., & Ledward, B. (2009). *Hawaiian cultural influences in education (NCIE): School engagement among Hawaiian students*. Honolulu, HI: Kamehameha Schools Research & Evaluation Division.
- Tate, M. L. (2013). Worksheets don't grow dendrites: 20 instructional strategies that engage the brain. *Instructional Leader*, 26(2), 1–3.
- Taxin, A. (2012). Urban US Chinatowns wane as Asians head to suburbs. *FoxNewsUS*. Online at <http://www.foxnews.com/us/2012/01/19/urban-us-chinatowns-wane-as-asians-head-to-suburbs.html>
- Taylor, D. (2000). Facing hardships: Jamestown and colonial life. In K. Samway (Ed.), *Integrating the ESL standards into classroom practice* (pp. 53–55). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).
- Teaching for Change. (2017). *Guide for selecting anti-bias children's books*. Retrieved from <https://socialjusticebooks.org/about/>
- Texas Education Agency. (2017a). *Texas Education Code, Chapter 74, Curriculum requirements*. Austin, TX: Author. Retrieved from <http://ritter.tea.state.tx.us/rules/tac/chapter074/ch074a.html>
- Texas Education Agency. (2017b). *List of approved tests for assessment of English language learners*. Austin, TX: Author.
- Tharp, R. (1989). Culturally compatible education: A formula for designing effective classrooms. In H. Trueba, G. Spindler, & L. Spindler (Eds.), *What do anthropologists have to say about dropouts?* New York: Falmer Press.
- Thernstrom, A., & Thernstrom, S. (2003). *No excuses: Closing the racial gap in learning*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Trueba, H., Cheng, L., & Ima, K. (1993). *Myth or reality: Adaptive strategies of Asian Americans in California*. Washington, DC: Falmer Press.
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2015). *Employment and unemployment of recent high school graduates and dropouts. Career Outlook*. Washington, DC: Author.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2001). *Census 2000 supplementary survey*. Washington, DC: Author.
- United States Census Bureau (2017). *Quick facts* Online at www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/US/PST045216
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2017). *Income and poverty in the United States: 2016*. Washington, DC: Author.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2018). *Language other than English spoken at home*. Washington, DC: Author. Online at <https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/note/US/POP815216>
- U.S. Census Bureau American Community Survey (2013). *Language spoken at home*. Online at <https://factfinder.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?src=bkmk>

- U.S. Department of Education Office of Planning, Evaluation and Policy Development Policy and Program Studies Service. (2016). *Educational experiences of English learners: Grade retention, high school graduation, and GED attainment, 2011–12*. Washington, DC: Author.
- U.S. Department of Education. (n.d.). *Our nation's English learners*. Retrieved from U.S. <https://www2.ed.gov/datastory/el-characteristics/index.html>
- Ukpokodu, N. (2002). Multiculturalism vs. globalism. In F. Schultz (Ed.), *Annual editions: Multicultural education 2002–2003* (pp. 7–10). Guilford, CT: McGraw-Hill/Dushkin.
- Uribe, M., & Nathenson-Mejia, S. (2008). *Literacy essentials for English language learners*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Valenzuela, A. (2004). *Leaving children behind: How "Texas-style" accountability fails Latino youth*. New York: State University of New York Press.
- Valenzuela, J. S., & Baca, L. (2004). Procedures and techniques for assessing the bilingual exceptional child. In L. M. Baca & H. T. Cervantes (Eds.), *The bilingual special education interface* (4th ed., pp. 184–203). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Merrill/Prentice Hall.
- Veeder, K., & Tramutt, J. (2000). Strengthening literacy in both languages. In N. Cloud, F. Genesee, & E. Hamayan (Eds.), *Dual language instruction*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Villegas, A. M., & Lucas, T. (2002). Preparing culturally responsive teachers: Rethinking the curriculum. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 53(1), 20–32.
- Vygotsky, L. (1981). The genesis of higher mental functions. In J. V. Wertsch (Ed.), *The concept of activity in Soviet psychology*. Armonk, NY: Sharpe.
- Ward, A. W., & Murray-Ward, M. (1999). *Assessment in the classroom*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Warren, B., Ballenger, C., Ogonowski, M., Rosebery, A., & Hudicourt-Barnes, J. (2001). Rethinking diversity in learning science: The logic of everyday language. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 38(5), 529–552.
- Watahomigie, L. (1995). The power of American Indian parents and communities. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 19(1), 99–115.
- Weatherly, S. D. (1999). I'll buy it! In R. E. Larimer & L. Schleicher (Eds.), *New ways in using authentic materials in the classroom* (pp. 73–80). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).
- Weber, E. (2005). *MI strategies in the classroom and beyond*. Boston: Pearson.
- Weiler, J. (1998). Recent changes in school desegregation. ERIC Digest (ED 419029). Clearinghouse on Urban Education. Retrieved from ericae.net/edo/ed419029.htm
- West, M. G., & Alfaro, M. (2017, June 22). NYC's Hispanic population is growing. *The Wall Street Journal*. Online at <http://www.wsj.com/articles/nycs-hispanic-population-is-growing-1498104060>
- Wexler, E., & Huerta, K. (2002). An empowering spirit is not enough: A Latino charter school struggles for leadership. In B. Fuller (Ed.), *Inside charter schools: The paradox of radical decentralization* (pp. 98–123). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Whitman, E. L. (1994). *Miss Nell fell in the well*. Kissimmee, FL: Learning Pyramid.
- Wiggins, G. P., & McTighe, J. (1998). *Understanding by design*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Wink, J. (2000). *Critical pedagogy: Notes from the real world*. New York: Addison-Wesley.
- Wink, J., & Putney, L. G. (2002). *A vision of Vygotsky*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Wolfe, P., & Poynor, L. (2001). Politics and the pendulum: An alternative understanding of the case of whole language as educational innovation. *Educational Researcher*, 30(1), 15–20.
- Wong, A. (2015, May 15). Where dropping out is going up. *The Atlantic*. Retrieved from <https://www.theatlantic.com/education/archive/2015/05/where-dropping-out-is-going-up/393398/>
- Wong, M. S. (1998). *You said it! Listening/speaking strategies and activities*. New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Woolfolk, A. (2003). *Educational psychology* (9th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Woolfolk, A., & Brooks, D. (1985). The influence of teachers' nonverbal behaviors on students' perceptions and performance. *Elementary School Journal*, 85, 514–528.
- Wray, M., & Newitz, A. (1997). *White trash: Race and class in America*. New York and London: Routledge.
- Wright, W. E., & Li, X. (2006). Catching up in math? The case of newly-arrived Cambodian students in a Texas intermediate school. *TABE Journal*, 9(1), 1–22.
- Yep, L. (1975). *Dragonwings*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Young, M., & Helvie, S. (1996). Parent power: A positive link to school success. *Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students*, 16.
- Zablah, N. R. (2017, November 8). Central American immigrants worry after Trump signals end to program protecting them from deportation. *Los Angeles Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.latimes.com/local/california/la-me-central-americans-tps-in-jeopardy-20171108-story.html>
- Zacarian, D. (2005). Rainforests and parking lots. *Essential Teacher*, 2(1), 10–11.
- Zehler, A. M., Fleischman, H. L., Hopstock, P. J., Pendzick, M. L., & Stephenson, T. G. *Descriptive study of services to LEP students and LEP students with disabilities*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
- Zwiers, J. (2008). *Building academic language: Essential practices for content classrooms*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

NAME INDEX

- Abedi, J., 233, 250
 Abram, P. L., 157
 Adamson, H. D., 176
 Agar, M., 316
 Airasian, P. W., 248, 250
 Alcaya, C., 185
 Alexander, S., 288
 Alfaro, M., 4
 Altman, L. J., 114
 Alvarez, J., 241
 Amanti, C., 230
 American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU)
 Foundation of Southern California, 91
 Anyon, J., 277
 Asher, J., 55
 Asian Nation, 4
 Atkins, B. K., 44
 Au, K., 293
 August, D., 96
 Austin, T., 54

 Babbitt, N., 144
 Baca, L., 276
 Baker, C., 60
 Baker, S., 108
 Balderrama, M. V., 7
 Bales, R. J., 210
 Ballenger, C., 150
 Banks, J., 193, 312, 313
 Banks, L., 193
 Barbe, W. B., 217
 Barr, R., 210
 Barrett, J., 129
 Barton, K. C., 149
 Bassano, S., 123, 125, 128
 Batalova, J. B., 282
 Bauman, K., 271
 Beaumont, C. J., 126
 Bembridge, T., 246
 Bennett, C., 300
 Bhattacharjee, Y., 50
 Birdsong, D., 48
 Birdwhistell, R., 290
 Bitter, G., 150
 Bitterlin, G., 226
 Bloch, J., 221
 Bode, P., 71, 76
 Bonesteel, L., 141
 Boshier, S., 42
 Bourdieu, P., 167
 Bourne, B., 163

 Bowen, T., 176
 Boyd, A. S., 193
 Boyd-Batstone, P., 151, 152, 217
 Boyle, O., 200, 203
 Boyle, A., 96
 Boyson, B. A., 100
 Bradley, J. A., 157
 Bradley, K. S., 157
 Brandt, R., 312
 Braun, L. A., 217
 Brend, R. M., 44
 Brinton, D., 102, 116, 182
 Brisk, M. E., 142
 Bromberg, M., 29
 Brooks, D., 318
 Brooks, G., 113
 Brophy, J., 318
 Brown, A. L., 210
 Brown, D., 56, 59, 70, 72
 Brown, A., 4
 Brozo, W. G., 149
 Brutt-Griffler, J., 11
 Bucholtz, M., 219
 Bunch, G. C., 157
 Bunting, E., 120
 Burk, T. L., 186
 Burley-Allen, M., 172
 Burnett, K., 305
 Bursuck, W. D., 253
 Bush, G.H.W., 232
 Butler, Y. G., 101

 Cabral, R. M., 245
 Cahnmann, M., 151
 California Department of Education (CDE),
 90, 96, 112, 114, 242
 Camarota, S. A., 2, 281
 Cameron, A., 118
 Campbell-Whitley, G. D., 318
 Canale, M., 168
 Cantlon, T. L., 123, 125, 128
 Carlson, C. D., 102
 Cary, S., 304, 316
 Casey, J., 156
 Casillas, D. I., 219
 Celce-Murcia, M., 32, 182
 Chambers, J., 102
 Chamot, A. U., 72, 115, 116, 251
 Chaney, A. L., 186
 Chard, D. J., 201, 204
 Chen, Q., 229

 Cheng, L., 240, 274
 Chesterfield, K., 59
 Chesterfield, R., 59
 Children's Defense Fund, 270, 271
 Chinn, P. C., 262, 317
 Cho Basso, T., 326
 Chomsky, N., 56, 57, 223
 Christensen, L., 312, 314
 Christison, M. A., 123, 125, 128
 Chung, H., 305
 Cipollone, N., 38, 48
 Clark, B., 310
 Cloud, N., 91, 195, 199
 Coehlo, E., 125
 Cohen, E., 122, 126
 Cole, M., 259
 Cole, S., 96
 Collie, J., 207
 Collier, V., 102, 104, 131, 319, 320
 Cook, V., 49, 81
 Cooter, R. B., 67
 Cope, J., 70
 Cordes, K. J., 272
 Corley, M. A., 198
 Crago, M., 293
 Crawford, J., 82, 84
 Cuevas, G., 153
 Cummins, J., 29, 49, 51, 57–58, 92–94,
 131, 171
 Curtain, H., 311
 Cushner, K., 296

 Dahlberg, C. A., 311
 Dale, P., 21
 Dale, T., 153
 Daloğlu, A., 29
 Darder, A., 279
 Day, F. A., 211
 de Boinod, A. J., 27
 Delgado-Gaitan, C., 309
 dePaola, T., 213
 Derrick-Mescua, M., 249
 deUnamuno, M., 310
 Diamond, B., 288
 Díaz-Rico, L. T., 7, 116, 175,
 259, 291
 Dirmann, J., 164
 Donato, R., 94
 Dowdy, C. A., 255, 256
 Dufour, R., 89
 Dumont, R., 293

- Echevarría, J., 108, 110, 122, 134
 Edmonson, S., 276
 Edwards, M. T., 150
 Egan, K., 169
 Ellis, S. S., 126
 Emmorey, K., 50
 Erickson, F., 75
 Ernst-Slavit, G., 316
 Escalante, J., 164, 166
 Escamilla, K., 18, 117, 203
 Ewert, S., 4

 Faltis, C. J., 122, 322, 323
 Feng, J., 274, 275
 Figueroa, A., 217
 Fisher, D., 130, 149, 162, 230
 Fleishman, H. L., 240
 Florcruz, M., 4
 Flores, A., 4
 Flynt, E. S., 67
 Folse, K. S., 180, 181
 Foorman, B. R., 102
 Foucault, M., 33
 Franco, L., 249
 Fraser, N., 259
 Frazier, I., 218
 Fredericks, A. D., 322
 Frey, N., 130, 149, 230
 Friedman, E. K., 213
 Friend, M., 253
 Fu, D., 217, 268
 Fuchs, D., 214
 Fuchs, L. S., 214
 Fuller, B., 269
 Funaki, I., 305

 Gadelha, R., 146
 Gajdamaschko, N., 169
 Gallimore, R., 188
 Gamrel, L. B., 210
 Gándara, P., 237
 Garcia, O., 170
 Gardner, R., 70
 Gargagliano, A., 141
 Gascoigne, C., 225
 Gay, G., 265
 Genesee, F., 91, 195
 Georgakopoulos, A., 318
 Gersten, R., 108
 Giezen, M. R., 50
 Gillen, J., 55, 62
 Gilliland, J., 288
 Giroux, H., 75
 Goldenberg, C., 188
 Gollan, T. H., 50
 Gollnick, D. M., 262, 317
 Gombert, J. E., 196

 González, N. E., 230
 Good, T., 318
 Goodman, K., 56
 Goodwin, J., 182
 Gopaul-McNicol, S., 252
 Gottlieb, M., 247
 Graham, C., 173
 Grahame, K., 203
 Graves, A., 108
 Greenfield, E., 199
 Gregory, G. H., 151, 159, 219, 243
 Grognet, A., 249
 Grossberg, L., 259
 Guerrero, L. K., 318
 Gunning, T. G., 200, 201
 Guthrie, J., 149
 Gutiérrez, A. S., 94

 Haas, M. E., 154
 Hackney, C. S., 217
 Hadaway, N. L., 208, 216
 Hafernik, J. J., 9
 Hakuta, K., 84, 101
 Haley, M. H., 63
 Hall, E., 40, 259
 Halliday, M., 30, 56, 57
 Hamayan, E., 91, 195, 203
 Hanson, R. A., 104
 Harmer, J., 134
 Harrington, D., 180, 181
 Harrington, M. M., 142
 Harris, T. L., 203
 Harris, V., 211
 Hatfield, M. M., 150
 Hayasaki, E., 266
 Haycock, K., 276
 Heath, S. B., 264, 269, 292
 Heide, F., 288
 Heilman, A. W., 18
 Helvie, S., 104
 Henderson, D., 314
 Henk, W. A., 157
 Henwood, D., 289
 Herrell, A., 322
 Herrera, S. G., 18, 117, 203, 245
 Hetherton, G., 188
 Hicks, T., 222, 223
 Hinojosa, R., 276
 Hispanic Dropout Project, 273, 274
 Hodges, R. E., 203
 Hoefnagel-Hoehle, M., 53
 Hofstetter, C. H., 250
 Hogue, A., 218
 Hooker, S., 282
 Hopkinson, A., 90
 Hopstock, P. J., 240
 Hornberger, N. H., 170

 Horwitz, E., 70
 Horwitz, M., 70
 Houston, G., 218, 221
 Huang, S., 276
 Hubble, D., 210
 Hudicourt-Barnes, J., 150
 Huerta, K., 269
 Huffman, F., 319
 Huntley, H., 29
 Hymes, D., 56, 168

 Ima, K., 274
 Inness, D., 24
 International Reading Association, 203
 Irujo, S., 60
 Irvine, J. J., 268
 Ivey, G., 149

 Jameson, J., 249
 Jametz, K., 112
 Jenks, C., 312, 313
 Jerald, C., 276
 Jiang, Y., 270
 Jiménez, R. T., 230
 Johnson, D. W., 122
 Johnson, B., 210
 Johnson, R., 122
 Jones, L., 173, 179
 Jones, L. T., 322, 325
 Jordan, C., 293
 Julian, T., 85

 Kagan, S., 123, 125, 128
 Kame'enui, E. J., 242
 Kang, H. W., 322
 Kanpol, B., 312, 313
 Katz, A., 100
 Kea, C., 318
 Kealey, J., 24
 Keiser, S. H., 38, 48
 KewalRamani, A., 272
 Kilano, M., 312
 King, J. R., 157
 King, M. L., Jr., 258
 Kluge, D., 123
 Nobel, M., 221
 Koball, H., 270
 Kohli, S., 273
 Krashen, S., 56, 223
 Kress, G., 216
 Kuehn, P., 322
 Kuzmich, L., 151, 159, 219

 Lambert, J., 141
 Lambert, W., 70
 Lankshear, C., 221
 Laufer, B., 28, 204

- Lave, J., 33, 61
 Lawton, R., 92
 Leathers, N., 262
 LeBeau, C., 180, 181
 LeCompte, M., 74
 Ledward, B., 314
 Lee, B. J., 203
 Lee, C., 101, 275
 Lee, E. Y., 323
 Lee, J. O., 312, 313
 Lee, J. S., 219
 Lee, O., 150
 Leistyna, P., 9
 Lemberger, N., 296
 Lenarcic, C., 114
 Lenneberg, E., 48, 53
 Levine, L. N., 118
 Levstik, L. S., 149
 Lewis, J., 319
 Li, X., 233
 Liebb, J., 29
 Lincoln, W., 210
 Lindholm, K., 92, 96
 Lindholm-Leary, K., 96
 Link, H., 170
 Linn, R. L., 245, 246
 Linse, C., 174
 Lippi-Green, R., 43, 44
 Lipton, L., 210
 Lockwood, A. T., 274
 Long, M., 56
 López, G., 4
 Lord, C., 250
 Lotan, R. A., 157
 Lu, M. L., 49
 Lucas, T., 100, 297, 313
 Lybeck, K., 185

 McCarten, J., 206
 McCarty, T. L., 269
 McFarland, J., 272
 McKenna, M. C., 137, 228, 229
 McLaren, P., 198
 McLeod, B., 272
 McTighe, J., 241
 Mahoney, D., 182, 188
 Mammia, A., 177
 Mandlebaum, L. H., 255
 Manning, M. L., 287, 290
 Mansour, W., 188
 Marinova-Todd, S., 53
 Marshall, D., 53
 Maruniak, Y., 176
 Mason, M., 316
 Master, P., 102
 Mather, M., 4
 Matthews, C., 179, 181, 187

 Matute-Bianchi, M., 75, 308
 May, F. B., 202
 May, J., 314
 May, S., 93
 Mehan, H., 60
 Mehrabian, A., 40
 Messerschmitt, D. S., 9
 Migration Policy Institute, 283
 Miller, G., 40
 Miller, L., 176
 Miller, M. D., 246
 Moils, M., 48
 Molina, H., 104
 Moll, L., 230
 Moore, M., 288
 Mora, J. K., 92
 Morey, A., 312
 Morgan, R., 178
 Morimoto, Y., 54
 Morrow, J., 150
 Moskowitz, G., 69
 Mougél, P., 185
 Murray-Ward, M., 245
 Murry, K. G., 245
 Musu-Gillett, L., 272

 Nakanishi, D., 275
 Natheson-Mejia, S., 99
 Nation, I.S.P., 28, 29
 National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), 2, 3, 271, 274, 275
 National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition & Language Instruction Programs (NCELA), 2
 National Education Association (NEA), 8
 Nero, S. J., 42
 Nesdale, A. R., 196
 Newitz, A., 289
 Nicholson, L., 259
 Nieto, S., 71, 76, 98
 Nishida, T. Y., 275

 Oakes, J., 272
 O'Barr, W. M., 44
 Ogbu, J., 72, 75, 308
 Ogonowski, M., 150
 Olmedo, I. M., 153
 Olsen, J. W-B., 125
 Olshtain, E., 32
 O'Malley, J. M., 246
 Orfield, T., 101, 275
 Ortiz, A. A., 253
 Oshima, A., 218
 Ostroff, C., 10
 Ouk, M., 319, 325
 Ovando, C., 102, 104, 319, 320
 Oyama, S., 53

 Packer, N., 221
 Paige, R. M., 259, 264
 Palinscar, A. S., 210
 Palomares, M. P., 12
 Panzar, J., 4
 Paribakht, S., 28
 Parrish, T., 102
 Patton, J. R., 255, 256
 Pearson, R., 259
 Peim, N., 32
 Pendzick, M. L., 240
 Peregoy, S., 200, 203
 Pérez, D. R., 18, 117, 203
 Pew Research Center, 4
 Philips, S., 61, 77, 278
 Phillips, J., 61
 Phipps, R., 233
 Pierce, L. V., 246
 Pikulski, J. J., 201
 Pillars, W., 12
 Pinnell, G. S., 32
 Polloway, E. A., 255, 256
 Poms, L., 21
 Porter, C., 50
 Porter, R., 92
 Poynor, L., 192
 Pratt, C., 196
 Price, D., 226
 Pridham, F., 34
 Pruitt, W., 144
 Pryor, C. B., 277

 Quiocho, A. L., 111, 206

 Radford, J., 4
 Raimés, A., 314
 Ramírez, J., 93
 Raphael, T. E., 157, 210
 Rasinski, T. V., 322
 Redish, L., 93
 Remillar, J. T., 151
 Richards, H. V., 318
 Richards, J. C., 205
 Riles, G. B., 114
 Rivera, C., 98
 Rizzardi, L., 202
 Robinson, G., 259
 Robinson, J., 272
 Robinson, R. D., 137, 228, 229
 Robles-Piña, R. A., 276
 Rodby, J., 216
 Rodríguez, A. P., 94
 Rosebery, A., 150
 Rowan, T., 163
 Ruiz Soto, A. G., 282
 Rumbaut, R. G., 94
 Runner, J., 294

- Ryan, C. L., 271
 Ryan, L., 53, 66

 Sales, F., 288
 Samimy, K. K., 11
 Samuels, C. A., 103
 Santa Ana, O., 79
 Sato, C., 318
 Saunders, W. M., 102
 Savage, K. L., 226
 Schumann, J., 73
 Scrivener, J., 28
 Secada, W. G., 274
 Selinker, L., 169
 Shaffer, D. R., 49
 Sherblom, S. A., 9
 Sholley, D., 174
 Short, D., 110, 122, 134
 Short, D. J., 100, 122
 Siccone, F., 69, 313
 Siebens, J., 85
 Siegel, D. F., 104
 SIL International, 16, 27
 Simmons, D. C., 242
 Simpson-Baird, A., 96
 Sindell, P., 307, 309
 Singleton, D. M., 53, 66
 Skutnabb-Kangas, T., 290
 Slater, S., 207
 Slavin, R., 122
 Smagorinsky, P., 215
 Smith, F., 56
 Smith, S. L., 259
 Smith, T.E.C., 255, 256
 Snow, C., 53
 Snow, D., 259, 260
 Sousa, D. A., 63
 Southern Poverty Law Center,
 286, 288
 Spears, R. A., 58
 Spellmeyer, K., 216
 Spinelli, E., 26
 Stahl, N. A., 157
 Stanch, W., 275

 Stecker, P. M., 214
 Steglitz, I., 7, 259
 Stephenson, T. G., 240
 Suid, M., 210
 Suina, J., 302, 309–10
 Sunal, C. S., 154
 Suresh, B., 208
 Suzuki, B., 274
 Swartz, S. L., 251

 Tabaku, L., 96
 Takahashi, E., 54
 Takayama, B., 314
 Tate, M. L., 63
 Taxin, A., 4
 Taylor, D., 150
 Templeton, S., 201
 Tharp, R., 60, 294
 Thernstrom, A., 274
 Thernstrom, S., 274
 Thomas-Presswood, T., 252
 Traiger, A., 29
 Tramutt, J., 96
 Trueba, H., 274, 309
 Trump, D. J., 286

 Ukpokodu, N., 312
 Ulanoff, S. H., 111, 206
 Uribe, M., 99
 U.S. Census Bureau, 4, 270, 281

 Valdés, G., 157
 Valenzuela, A., 233
 Valenzuela, J. S., 276
 Vandrick, S., 9
 Vardell, S. M., 208, 216
 Vasishth, S., 38, 48
 Veeder, K., 96
 Villegas, A. M., 297, 313
 Vogt, M., 110, 122, 134
 Vygotsky, L., 62, 168, 192

 Ward, A. W., 245
 Warren, B., 150

 Wasylyk, T. M., 217
 Watahomigie, L., 322
 Weatherly, S. D., 128
 Weaver, S., 185
 Weber, E., 69
 Weed, K. Z., 291
 Wei, L., 170
 Weiler, J., 275
 Wenger, E., 33, 61
 West, M. G., 4
 Wexler, E., 269
 Whalen, S. F., 126
 Whisler, N., 128
 Whitman, E. L., 184
 Wigfield, A., 149
 Wiggins, G. P., 241
 Wilkinson-Flicker, S., 272
 Williams, J., 128
 Wilson, R., 255
 Winer, L., 125
 Wink, J., 62, 193
 Witt, D., 101
 Wolfe, P., 192
 Wong, A., 273
 Wong, M. S., 185, 186
 Woodrum, A., 9
 Woolfolk, A., 71, 318
 Wray, M., 289
 Wright, W. E., 233

 Yan, Z., 229
 Yep, L., 120
 Young, M., 104
 Young, T. A., 208, 216

 Zablah, N. R., 286
 Zacarian, D., 180
 Zehler, A. M., 240
 Zeigler, K., 2, 281
 Zemach, D. E., 176
 Zhang, A., 272
 Zwiers, J., 136

SUBJECT INDEX

- Academic achievement
 - of minorities, 272, 274
 - teacher expectations and, 295
- Academic competence, 49, 81
- Academic language functions, 30–32
- Academic subjects, 77. *See also*
 - Content-area instruction
- Academic success, 68
- Accelerated learning, 230, 237
- Accent
 - native, in English, 181, 184
 - serious issues, 184
- Access to core curriculum, 100, 101, 250, 276
- Accommodation, 277
 - as a two-way process, 278
 - cultural, 300–310
 - dialect, 41
 - in English learner testing, 232
 - of influence of social class, 307
 - of occupational aspirations, 308
 - responsive, 317
 - teacher's intercultural pragmatics, 40
 - test, 250
 - work and play, 303
- Acculturation
 - family, 72–75
 - gentle, 280
 - model (Schumann), 73–74
 - phases of, 279, 302
 - processes, 278
- Achievement tests, 114
 - in native language, 240
 - standardized, 243
 - state, 232
 - translation problems, 244
- Acknowledging students' differences, 300
- Acquisition-learning hypothesis (Krashen), 56, 223
- Acronyms, 23
- ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages), 51
- Activities
 - age-appropriate, values about, 307–8
 - to enhance self-esteem, 8, 56, 68–70, 71, 313, 314
- Adapting curriculum for secondary social studies, 164
- Adapting instruction for English learners, 108, 109
- Adapting tasks
 - listening, 255
 - reading, 255–56
 - writing, 256
- Additive bilingualism, 50, 68, 95, 96, 97, 100, 167–68
- Address, forms of, 65
- Adequate yearly progress (AYP), 232, 233
- Advanced levels of SLA. *See* Second-language acquisition (SLA)
- Advancement Via Individual Determination (AVID), 273
- Affective domain and factors, 68, 164, 315
- Affective filter hypothesis (Krashen), 56
- Affixes, 23
- Afghan community, 286
- African Americans, 22, 78, 91, 226, 270, 314
- African-American Vernacular English, 42–43
- Age-appropriate activities, values about, 307–8
- Age for second-language acquisition, 52–53
- Alignment of home and school, 300
- Ambiguity, grammatical, 25
- American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), 91
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 51
- Analytic scoring, 186
- Annual measurable achievement objective (AMAO), under NCLB, 238
- Antiracism
 - activities, 288
 - programs, need for, 280, 290
- Anxiety level, 70
- Anxiety, test, 244
- Arabic and Islamic culture, 145
- Arabic speakers, 2, 20, 281
- Arizona, English learners in, 3
- Articulation, point of, 20
- "Asian-American Children: What Teachers Should Know" (Feng), 275
- Asian American Educational Experience: A Sourcebook for Teachers and Students* (Nakanishi, Nishida), 275
- Asian Americans
 - demographics of, 4–5
 - model minority myth, 274–75
- Asian immigrants, 4, 84, 285
- Aspirations about schooling, 263
- Assessments. *See also* Achievement tests
 - accommodations in, 250
 - analytic scoring, 186
 - authentic, 246
 - based instruction, 240–42
 - biased, 244, 276
 - classroom, 245–48
 - of content objectives, 250
 - curriculum tasks, 246
 - ELD, 251
 - of English learners, 232
 - fairness in, 243–45
 - formative, 142–43, 162, 225, 242, 245
 - and grading procedures, 245, 249
 - high-stakes, 233
 - holistic scoring, 186
 - interpretation of, 251–52
 - of L2 proficiency level, 67
 - language and content area, 250–52
 - of language-development objectives, 251
 - language proficiency, 239
 - of learning-strategy objectives, 251
 - limitations of, 245–46
 - in mathematics, 163
 - as musical performance, 163
 - observation-based, 247
 - outcome-based, 246
 - peer, 245
 - performance-based, 246
 - for placement, 240
 - portfolio, 103, 247, 251
 - practicality in, 244
 - of prior knowledge, 129, 148
 - purpose of, 237–50
 - questionnaires as, 247
 - reliability of, 233, 244
 - reporting to parents, 250
 - scaffolding, 252
 - scoring rubrics, 248
 - selecting classroom, 248–49
 - self-, 163, 219, 245, 247, 296
 - in social studies, 163–64
 - special issues in, 252–56
 - standardized testing, 74, 88–89, 92, 236
 - state-adopted tests, 237–38
 - summative, 110, 143, 162, 241, 242, 245
 - surveys, 247
 - teacher-made, 246
 - textbook, 245
 - types of, 245–48
 - uses of classroom, 248–49
 - validity of, 244
 - in visual and performing arts, 163

- Assimilation
 - cultural, 278, 300
 - processes, 92, 278
 - structural, 278
- Assimilationist model, 92
- Attending and focusing difficulties, 253
- Attitude of learners, 71
- Attitude of teachers, 141, 142
- Attitudes and abilities, adapting to
 - students', 310
- Attitudes toward schooling, 263
- Audiolingual methods, 54, 55, 181
- Authentic assessment, 246
- Author and You questions, 157
- AVID (Advancement Via Individual Determination), 273
- AYP (Adequate Yearly Progress), 232, 233

- Background factors of SLA. *See also* Second-language acquisition (SLA)
 - academic success, 68
 - age, 65–68
 - assessed L2 level, 66–68
 - first-language proficiency, 66
 - forms of address, 65
 - likes/dislikes, 68
 - matching instruction to L2 levels, 67–68
 - naming practices, 65
 - previous L2 experience, 66
 - stages of second-language acquisition, 67
- Backwards lesson planning, 241–42
- Banks's levels of multicultural education, 312, 313
- Barriers to family and community involvement, 77–78
- Basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), 131, 132, 178
 - combined with cognitive language, 171
 - helping students acquire, 171–72
- Beginning level of second-language acquisition, 58, 67, 136, 173, 197, 198, 248
 - context embedded, 171
- Behaviorism, 55
- Benchmark group, 242
- Bias
 - against English learners, 243, 254
 - in assessments, 276
 - class, in tests, 244
 - cultural, in tests, 244
 - dialectical, in tests, 244
 - and discrimination in the U. S., 287
 - geographic, in tests, 244
 - language-specific, in tests, 244
 - recognizing, 74
- BICS. *See* Basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS)
- Biculturalism, 277, 279
- Bilingual education
 - additive bilingualism, 96–98
 - developmental, 89, 91
 - immersion, 95–96
 - immersion model of, 92
 - key legislation and court cases, 87
 - language use and policy, contest of, 86
 - laws, 90
 - legal issues in, 83–85
 - maintenance, 91
 - politics of, 91–93
 - programs, 85–89
 - transitional or early-exit, 89, 98–99, 237
- Bilingual Education Act, 272, 324
- Bilingualism
 - additive (proficient), 50, 58, 68
 - cognitive approach to, 57–58
 - cognitive benefits of, 49
 - historical development of, 82–87
 - limited, 49
 - subtractive, 49, 98–101
 - types of, 49–50
- Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM), 49
- Blacks. *See* African Americans
- Blends
 - defined, 23
 - focus on, 183
 - syllables, 195
 - vowel, 20, 203
- Body language, 290–91, 321
- Bound morphemes, 23
- Brain-based learning, 24, 63
- Brain-Compatible Differentiated Instruction for English Language Learners* (Haley), 63
- Bridging, 68, 120, 148, 163
- Brown v. Board of Education*, 87, 101, 268, 275
- Building blocks of language, 18–30
- Building schemata, 129, 149–50

- California, English learners in, 2–3
- California Department of Education, 90
- California ELA/ELD standards, 238
- California English Language Arts Standards, 114, 199, 235
- California English Language Development Standards, 70, 89–90, 91, 114, 234, 235, 238
- California English Language Development Test (CELDT), 66–67, 100, 114–15, 238
- California Multilingual Education Act, 90
- CALLA (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach), 77, 116–18
- CALLA *Handbook*, 115
- CALP. *See* Cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP)
- Cambodian students, 233
- Canada, English learners in, 5–6
- Cantonese, 4, 22
- Castañeda v. Pickard*, 88
- Castelike minorities, 72–73, 79
- CBI. *See* Content-based instruction (CBI)
- CBOs (Community-based organizations), 105
- CCSSO (Council of Chief State School Officers), 67
- CELDT (California English Language Development Test), 66–67, 100, 114–15, 238
- Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL), 236
- Center for Negotiation and Conflict Resolution (CNCR), 280
- Central Americans, 4, 93, 277, 282
- Cheche Konnen Science Project, 150
- Cherokee language (Tsalagi), 83, 93
- Chicanos, 262, 269
- Child-rearing
 - practices, 306, 309
 - values about, 308–9
- Children's Defense Fund, 270, 271
- Chinese, Chinese Americans, 4, 94, 323
- Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882, 284
- Chinese language (Mandarin), 6, 26
- Civil Rights Act of 1964, 84, 87
- CLT (Communicative Language Teaching), 56
- Clarification checks, 136
- Clarity of vision, 9–10
- Class bias in tests, 244
- Classification organizers, 139
- Classism, 288, 289
- Classroom
 - culturally supportive, 317–19
 - educational issues beyond the, 271–77
 - resolving conflict in, 303–5
 - routines, 134
- CLD (Culturally and linguistically diverse) students, 2, 7, 78, 233, 254, 300, 311
- Clipping, 23
- Cloudy with a Chance of Meatballs* (Barrett), 129
- Co-construction of meaning, 37
- Code switching, 43, 59–60
- Coercive relations of power, 58, 94
 - and collaborative, distinction, 58
- Cognates, English-Spanish, 24, 27, 132
- Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), 77, 116–18
- Cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), 29, 33, 58, 98, 178
 - and BICS, 132
 - promoting development of, 131–32
- Cognitive apprentice model, 156
- Cognitive factors of SLA, 71–72
- Cognitive perspective, 71, 169
- Cognitive revolution, 116

- Cognitive strategies, 31, 57, 102, 117, 227
 Cognitive style, 223, 298
 Collaboration, 146–48, 274
 in middle school social studies, 157
 with paraprofessionals, 255
 in teaching, 228
 Collaborative model, 228
 Collaborative relations of power, 58, 94
 and coercive, distinction, 58
 Collocation, 28
 Common Core State Standards, 67
 Common underlying proficiency (CUP), 51–52
 Communication
 context-reduced, in CALP, 131
 enhancing home-school, 320–21
 with families, 320
 intercultural, 13, 276, 281, 290–96
 listening for, 173, 174–76
 myths about barriers to, 320
 nonverbal, 40, 290
 role of silence in, 292–93
 strategies, 132–34
 verbal, and cultural diversity, 292–95
 Communicative competence, 56, 59, 111, 168–69
 bilingual, 60
 Communicative games, 58
 Communicative interaction, focus on, 168–71
 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), 56
 Communicative strategies, categories of, 59
 Community as sources of information, 317
 Community-based organizations (CBOs), 105
 Community involvement, 319
 Community members as sources for information, 317
 Community of practice, 33
 Community participation, 37, 76, 77
 Community partnership with schools, 105
 Compare/contrast organizers, 139
 Compensatory education, 89, 98, 272–73
 Comprehensibility, 118, 120
 Comprehensible input, 102, 120, 228
 Comprehension
 checking for, 120, 248
 in science, 162
 strategies for failing, 210
 Computer-assisted instruction (CAI), 145
 Computer-managed instruction (CMI), 146
 Computer-mediated communication (CMC), 146, 189, 225
 Computer-supported learning, 146–48
 Concept development, 202
 Concept development organizers, 139
 Conceptions
 of space, 40
 of time, 40, 244
 Concepts about print, 52, 195, 200–201
 Conceptualization, in CALP, 132
 Conferences
 family-teacher, 321
 three-way, 321
 Conflict resolution, 280–81
 Connections, in SDAIE, 120
 Connotations, 27, 28, 206
 Constructivist views of learning, 61–62
 Contact-based ELD, 227–28
 CBI-ELD classrooms, 227
 Contemporary theories of language development. *See also* Historical theories of SLA; Second-language acquisition (SLA)
 communication strategies for SLA, 59–60
 communicative language teaching, 58–59
 Cummins's theories of bilingualism and cognition, 57–58
 language acquisition device (LAD), 57
 translanguaging, 60
 Content, in SDAIE, 120
 Content-area instruction, 108, 111–18, 194
 instructional needs beyond the classroom, 164–66
 in literature, 156
 in mathematics, 154–55
 in physical education, 24, 241
 scaffolded, 154–57
 in science, 155–56
 in social studies, 156–57
 three-phase pattern, 154–55
 visual and performing arts, 122
 Content-based ESL
 collaboration in, 228
 lesson planning in, 228
 Content-based instruction (CBI)
 adjunct model, 228
 CBI-ELD classrooms, 227
 collaboration in, 228
 Content objectives, 111, 112–14
 Content reading, secondary level, 214–15
 Content-related language development
 objective, 114–16
 Content standards, 112
 Content validity, 244
 Context-embedded communication, 131, 171
 Context-reduced communication, 131
 Contextual interaction model, 269
 Contextualization, 120, 132, 133, 150–51
 Contextual redefinition, 206
 Contrastive analysis, 22, 54
 Conversation
 environments for, 223
 instructional, 37
 Cooperation vs. competition, 74, 309–10
 Cooperative learning, 78, 122–28
 as a discourse alternative, 36
 benefits of, 123
 challenges to, 126
 guidelines for, 123
 instructional use of, 124–25
 jigsaw model, 127–28
 sample activities, 127
 Core curriculum, 76. *See also* Curriculum
 access to, 100, 101, 250, 276
 neglect of second-language learners, 276
 right of access to, 276
 Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), 67
 Court cases, 87, 181, 275
 Creative thinking, 211
 Critical discourse analysis, 32
 Critical literacy, 58
 Critical period hypothesis, 53
 Critical perspective, 7, 189
 Critical reflection, 143
 Critical thinking, 176, 211, 318–19
Critical Thinking Handbook, 211
 Cubans, Cuban-Americans, 4, 84
 Cultural
 accommodation, 300
 adaptation, concerns, 277–78
 assimilation, 278
 bias, in tests, 244
 concepts and perspectives, 258–66
 conflict, 277, 280, 280–81
 congruence, 265
 deficit model, 268, 276
 differences, in written discourse, 294–95
 fairness, 290
 identity and pride, 193, 258, 311, 313
 identity, validating student's, 313–14
 incompatibility, 268–69
 inferiority theory, 268
 mediators, family as, 323–25
 mismatch, 268–69
 pluralism, 264–65
 practices, impact of geography on, 266
 self-study, 297
 Cultural contact, 277–81
 processes, 278–79
 psychological and socio-emotional issues in, 279
 resolving problems of, 280–81
 Cultural deprivation
 model, 236, 268
 poverty and, 264
 theory of, 84, 268

- Cultural diversity, 268–69
 educating students about, 311–14
 intragroup and intergroup, 266
 in nonverbal communication, 290–92
 in the United States, 281–90
 in verbal communication, 292–95
- Culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD)
 students, 2, 7, 78, 233, 254, 300, 311
- Culturally inclusive instruction, 299–327
- Culturally supportive classroom, 317–19
- Culturally sustaining school, 280
- Cultural values, 264
 affected by literacy, 294
 affecting family involvement, 263
 immigrant, 277
 mainstream, 327
 Mexican American, 310
 multicultural, 98
 teacher's, 296
 about time, 305
- Cultural vs. ethical relativism, 264
- Culture
 components of, 260, 261, 300
 definitions of, 258–60
 external elements of, 267
 and gender issues, 270
 and inclusion, 231–56
 internal elements of, 267
 Internet as a source of knowledge
 about, 317
 key concepts about, 260–66
 learning about students', 315–17
 mainstream, 262, 265, 292
 role in the school, 299–310
 shock, 253
- Cummins's theories of bilingualism and
 cognition, 57–58
- CUP (Common underlying proficiency),
 51–52
- Curriculum. *See also* Core curriculum
 adapting for secondary social studies, 164
 calibration, 241
 design, 101, 109
 multicultural, 296, 312–313338
- Cyber age, literacy in, 228–29
- Day of Ahmed's Secret* (Heide, Gilliland), 288
- Declaration of the Rights of Persons
 Belonging to National, Ethnic,
 Religious, and Linguistic Minorities of
 the General Assembly of the United
 Nations, 84
- Decoding, 202–3
- Del Rio Independent School District v. Salvatierra*, 86
- Democracy, 345–46
- Demographics of English learners, 2–5
- Demographic trends, 270, 281–82
- Denotations, 27
- Developmental bilingual education, 126
- Dialectical bias, 244
- Dialects and language variation
 accent, defined, 43
 attitudes toward, 43–44
 common features of, 42–43
 deeper syntactic cause for, 42–43
 dialect, defined, 41
 and discrimination, 44
 and education of English learners, 41–42
 instructional conversation, 36–37
 nonstandard, 42, 45
 recitation pattern, 33–36
 regional, 42
 social and ethnic differences in, 43
 social stratification, 42
 standard English as, 41–42
 and style, 42, 43, 44
 vernacular and language teaching, 44–45
- Differentiated instruction, 110, 115, 130,
 171, 197, 240, 242
- Directed reading activity, 229
- Direct instruction, 214, 223
- Direct teaching, 48, 54, 55
- Disciplinary policies, 76
- Discourse
 academic, 32–37
 alternatives, 36–37
 classroom patterns, 293–94
 community patterns of, 37
 competence, 168–69
 cultural differences in written, 294–95
 diversity in oral, 292
 oral, in the classroom, 33–37
 styles, 293
 written, 32
- Discrimination, 289–90
 against the poor, 289
 de facto segregation, 290
 economic, 43
 linguistic, 37, 39
 visual, 203
- Discursive practices, 33
- Discussion Starters* (Folse), 181
- Diversity
 challenges, 286–90
 differentiating instruction for learning, 130
 educating students about, 311–14
 in learning styles, 317
 in oral discourse, 292
- Dragonwings* (Yep), 120
- Dress and appearance, values about, 302
- Dropout rates, 94, 271, 273, 306
- Dual-language acquisition
 phonemes and, 50
 simultaneous, 50
- Dual-language development programs,
 96–98
- Dual-language immersion. *See* Two-way
 (dual) immersion (TWI) programs
- Early advanced levels of SLA, 68, 174, 197,
 209, 235
- Early intermediate levels of SLA, 173, 178,
 183, 197, 209, 235
- Early production stage of SLA, 51
- Economic factors in immigration,
 284, 285
- Economics, values about, 304–5
- Educate America Act, 232
- Education
 global and multicultural, 311–12
 values about, 305
- Educational expectations, 6, 305, 306
- Educational issues involving English
 learners, 276–77
- Effective resources, ELD and SDAIE. *See also*
 Technological resources
 materials, selecting and using,
 143–45
- ELA. *See* English-Language Arts (ELA)
- ELD. *See* English-language development
 (ELD)
- Elementary and Secondary Education Act
 (ESEA), 85, 89, 232, 233
- ELPS (English Language Proficiency
 Standards), 234
- Emergent literacy, 200
- Emergent spelling, 216
- Emotional settings, 194
- Empirical validity, 244
- Empowerment, 9, 58, 269
 English for, 193–94
 issues, 93–94
- English as a second language (ESL). *See*
 English-language development (ELD)
- English for Speakers of Other Languages
 (ESOL), 6, 10
 teacher preparation for, 10–13
- English language. *See also* Phonemes;
 Syntax
 cognates, with Spanish, 24–27
 dialects and English learners, 41–42
 intonation patterns, 22, 44, 173,
 181, 182
 nonstandard, 42, 45
 proficiency level, 196–97
 sound system, 18, 50, 181
 standard, 42, 44–45
- English-Language Arts (ELA)
 content standards, 108, 114, 198, 234
 frameworks, 213
 standards, 67, 102, 114, 198, 234, 238

- English-language development (ELD), 1, 95–103
 and academic instruction, 103, 108, 179
 basic interpersonal communication skills in, 131–32, 171–72
 challenges to, 82
 in class period, 102
 as compensatory education, 98, 272–73
 contemporary teaching, parts of, 171
 content-based, 102
 employment in, 10
 grammar, 24
 instructional planning and organization for, 108–22
 legal requirements for services, 85–91
 through listening, 172–77
 literacy, 2235–77
 models for, 102–3
 in newcomer programs, 100–101
 objectives, 108, 153, 156–57
 oracy, 167–90
 programs for, 101–3
 standards-based planning, 111–18
 standards for, 234–37
 teachers, 10, 16
- English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS), 234
- English learners
 achievement of, 7
 adapting instruction for, 108, 109
 cognitive factors influencing, 72, 171
 through content, 102
 defined, 2, 6
 demographic trends in, 4–5
 dialects and education of, 41–42
 international profile of, 5–6
 learning challenges, 5, 252–53
 psychological factors influencing, 65–72
- English learners with special needs, 253
- English-only movement, 92–93
- English proficiency, levels of, 234, 235
- Episodic memory, cueing of, 151
- Equal Education Opportunities Act (EEOA), 87
- Equal opportunity
 classroom characterized by, 7
 fighting for, 290
- Equity in schooling, 94
- Equity issues, 93–94
- Error correction, guidelines, 225
- Escalante, math program, 164, 166
- ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages), 6, 10
- Ethical relativism, 264
- Ethics, professional, 8–9
- Ethnic groups. *See specific ethnic groups*
- Ethnic politics, impact of, 269
- Ethnocentrism, 264
- Ethnographic techniques, 37, 315–16
- European Americans, 83, 244, 262, 268, 272, 276, 289, 307
- Evaluation organizers, 142
- Evaluative organizers, 138
- Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), 89, 102, 233, 237, 271
- Exit procedures. *See* Redesignation/Reclassification/Exit of English learners
- Expectations, educational, 8, 318
- Expertise
 in content, 8
 in teaching, 224–25
- Explicit feedback, 224
- Explicit teaching of grammar, benefits, 223–24
- Eye contact, 37, 40, 291
- Facial expressions, 37, 40, 63, 268, 290, 291, 321
- Fairness, fighting for, 290
- False cognates, English-Spanish, 27
- Family. *See also* Parent(s)
 acculturation, 72–75
 child's learning, assisting in, 321–22
 as cultural mediators, 323–25
 internet resources for involvement of, 322
 involvement, 319–27
 literacy projects, 322
 as source of information, 317
 -teacher conferences, 321
 tracking contact with, 321
 unification, 284–85
 values and school values, 319–20
- Federal legislation, 85–91, 232–34, 237, 240, 286. *See also specific federal acts and laws*
- Federal/State requirements for ELD services, 85–91. *See also* Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)
- Feedback
 in the recitation pattern, 34, 35–36
 role of, 224–25
- Filipino immigrants, 292. *See also* Philippines
- First-language acquisition, 48
 commonality with SLA, 51–52
 innateness hypothesis, 48
 stages of, 48–49
- First-language proficiency. *See also* Primary language
 acquisition of, 48–49
 sociocultural support for, 78
- First language, role in schooling, 49
- Florida Consent Decree, 89–90
- Florida Department of Education, 90
- Flowers (poem, Greenfield), 199
- Fluency, in reading, 221–22
- Fluent English learners (FEP), 51
- Food preferences and practices, 309
- Foreign language in elementary school (FLES), 276
- Formative assessment, 110, 142–43, 162, 225, 242, 246, 318
- Front-loaded English, 100–101
- Functional literacy, 58
- Functions of language, 30–32
- Funds of knowledge approach, 276
- Gender, values about, 306–7
- Gender roles, expectations, 307
- Generation 1.5, preparing for college writing, 215–16
- Generative organizers, 138
- Geographic bias, in tests, 244
- Gestures, 37, 40, 63, 261, 291
- Global and multicultural education, 311–12
- Goals 2000: Educate America Act, 88, 232
- Gómez v. Illinois State Board of Education, 88
- Grade-level-appropriate texts, 211
- Grading English learners, 10, 105, 249
- Grammar
 instruction in, 108, 222, 223–27
 role of, 223–27
 transformational, 55–56
 and writing, 226
- Grammar-translational pedagogy, 52
- Grammatical competence, 45, 168
- Graphic organizers, 137–42. *See also specific organizers*
 sample charts, 139–42
 types of, 138
- Graphophonics, 200
- Groups, working in. *See* Cooperative learning
- Guatemala, 73, 118
- Guided practice, 158
- Guide for Selecting Anti-Bias Children's Books, 314
- Haitians, Haitian creole, 43, 150, 281, 284, 286
- Handwriting in English, 217
- Harvard Civil Rights Project, 273
- Hawai'i, Hawai'ian language, 19, 314
- Health, values about, 304
- Hegemony, 8
- Heritage language, support for, 276. *See also* Primary language
- Hispanic Americans
 demographics of, 4–5, 91, 270–73, 274, 275, 276
 migration of, 282
 naming practices, 65
- Hispanic Dropout Project, 274

- Historical theories of SLA
 behaviorist theories, 55
 communicative competence, 56
 focus on structure, 54–55
 grammar translation, 54
 interactionist model, 56
 Krashen's monitor model, 56
 meaning-centered approaches, 56–57
 History instruction. *See* Social studies instruction
 Hmong culture, 316
 Hmong Literacy Project, 322
 Holistic scoring, 186
 Holophrastic utterance, 49
 Home language. *See* Primary language
 Home language survey, 240
 Home-school communication, 346–48
 Home-school connection, 320–23, 325–26
 Home visits, 316
 Homework help, 98, 164, 171, 193, 322
 Homonyms, 28
 Homophones, 28
How Many Days to America (Bunting), 120
How the Brain Learns (Sousa), 63
 Humanities and the arts, values about, 309
 “Hungry Minds; Tales from a Chelsea Soup Kitchen” (Frazier), 218
 Hygiene, values about, 304

Ibrahim (Sales), 288
 IDEA (Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act), 88, 243
 Identification procedures
 for English learners, 238–40
 for special needs, 253–54
 Identity, validating, 313–14
 Immersion. *See* Bilingual education;
 Structured English immersion (SEI);
 Two-way (dual) immersion (TWI)
 programs
 Immigrant culture, and assimilation, 277
 Immigrants
 legal status of, 286
 resources available to, 286
 Immigration and Nationality Act
 Amendments of 1965, 285
 Immigration in the U.S., 282–83
 contemporary causes of, 283–86
 economic factors in, 284, 285
 family unification and, 284–85
 history of, 282–83
 policies, 285–86
 political factors in, 284
 Immigration laws
 changes under Trump administration, 286
 U.S., 285–86
 Immigration Reform and Control Act, 286

 Implicit learning, supplemental role of, 225
 Inclusion and culture, 231–56
 Independent practice, 158–62
 resources for, 159–62
 India, 2, 4, 74, 282–83, 285
 Indigenous language rights, 85
 Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEA), 88, 243
 Inferiority, from racial to cultural, 268
 Infixes, 23
 Information-retention difficulties, 252
 Inhibition, 69
 Innateness hypothesis, 48
 Input hypothesis (Krashen), 56
 Institutional racism, 289
 Instruction. *See also* Content-area instruction
 adapting for English learners, 108, 109
 cycle of, 151
 differentiated, 130, 242
 of literacy, 96, 192, 199
 modifying for CLD students,
 122, 132–36
 for oracy, 167–90
 Instructional Conversation (IC), 36–37
 and oral discourse, 171, 188–89
 Instructional delivery, modifying, 132–36
 Instructional needs beyond the classroom,
 164–66
 Instrumental motivation, 70
 Integrated approach to oracy and
 literacy, 194
 Integrated objectives, 169
 Integrative motivation, 70
 Integrity, teaching with, 7–10, 79
 Intensive group, 242
 Interaction, in SDAIE, 120–22
 Interactionist model of second-language
 acquisition, 56
 Interactive journal writing, 216
 Intercultural communication, 13, 276, 281,
 290–96
 strategies in the school for, 295
 teaching, 296
 Intercultural educator, 9, 321, 336
 Intercultural pragmatics, 40, 41
 Interethnic conflict, 280
 Interlanguage perspective, 169–70
 Interlanguage theory, 60, 213
 Intermediate fluency stage of SLA, 51
 Intermediate levels of SLA, 58, 107, 178,
 225, 241
 International Literacy Association (ILA),
 12, 203
 International Reading Association, 203
 Internet, 160–61
 resources for cultural information, 317
 resources for family involvement, 322
 for social studies instruction, 202–3
 in writing, 221–23
 Interpersonal
 cooperation, 280
 distance (proxemics), 290
 respect, 41
 stress, 261
 Interpreter, use of, 321
 Interventions
 early, 253–54
 need-driven, classroom-based, 251–52
 Interviews
 to identify English learners, 93
 to learn about culture, 315–16
 Intonation, 21–22, 44
 teaching, 182–83
 IRE, IRF. *See* Recitation pattern, in the
 classroom
 Islamic traditions, 305

 Japanese immigrants, 262, 284, 285
 Japan, Japanese language, Japanese students,
 4, 84, 86, 262, 274, 292
 Jazz chants, 216
*Junior Historians: Doing Oral History
 with ESL and Bilingual Students*
 (Olmedo), 153

Keyes v. School District #1, 87
 Khmer, 274, 284
 Korea, Korean-Americans, South Korea, 4,
 52, 94, 274, 283, 310
 Korean language, 18, 162
 Krashen, 168, 258, 275. *See also* Monitor
 hypothesis (Krashen); Monitor Model
 (Krashen)
 K-W-L (Know, Want to learn, have Learned),
 129, 207
 chart, 141

 Language
 acquisition process and stages, 47–80
 arts curriculum, equitable access, 238
 building blocks of, 18–30
 cognitive approach to, 57–58
 complexity of, 15–16, 17–18
 development in SDAIE, 11, 100, 108, 110,
 114, 122
 dialects in, 41–46
 dynamics of, 17
 education rights, 83–86
 functions of, 30–32
 of mathematics, 153
 modality of, 224–25
 modification in SDAIE, 99–100, 135
 of music, 154

- Language (*continued*)
 oral vs. written, 294
 proficiency tests, 238, 239
 registers, 38–39
 restrictionism, 82, 93
 revitalization, 93
 of science, 153
 shock, 253
 of social studies, 153–54
 structure and use, 15–46, 239
 transfer, 195, 196
 universals, 16–18
 use of patterned, 134
 in the visual arts, 154
- Language acquisition device (LAD), 57
- Language-development objective, in lesson planning, 112
- Language Experience Approach (LEA), 212
- Language-specific bias, in tests, 244
- Language structure and use, 15–45
 discourse, 30–37
 language universals, 16–18
 morphology, 16, 22–24, 31
 phonology, 18, 21–22
 pragmatics, 37–41
 semantics, 26–28
 syntax, 24–26
- Language variation. *See* Dialects and language variation
- Laos, Laotian students, 2, 86
- Latinos, Latinx, 4, 9, 78, 87, 273, 274, 292, 314.
See also Hispanic Americans
- Launch into Reading, Level I* (Heinle, Heinle), 199
- Lau Remedies, 85, 87
- Lau v. Nichols*, 84, 85, 87
- Law, values about, 304–5
- Learners. *See* English learners
- Learning centers, 169–70
- Learning disabilities, 5
- Learning environments, culturally inclusive, 317–19
- Learning strategies, 72
 direct instruction types for, 117
 objectives of, 112, 118, 250–51
- Learning styles, 72, 103, 122, 150, 152, 258, 317
- Legal issues in bilingual education, 83, 84–93
- Lemon Grove v. Álvarez*, 86
- Lesson planning (CBI-ELD), 228
- Linguistic knowledge, 16
- Linguistic racism, 39, 79
- Linguistic repression, 84
- Listening, 172–77
 activities for, 188
 authentic tasks in, 177
 for beginning comprehension, 173, 175
 for communication, 174
 comprehension by ELD level, 218, 241
 processes, 176–77
 to repeat, 173–74
 strategies for additional mediation, 255
 to understand, 174
- Listen-read-discuss, 229
- Literacy
 classification of English learners', 235
 content, 227
 critical, 58
 in the cyber age, 228–29
 delivery, 230
 emergent, 96, 195, 200, 201, 247
 for empowerment, 58
 for English learners, 191–230
 foundations of, 198–215
 functional, 58
 integration of content and, 227
 personal factors affecting development, 194
 possibilities for alternative, 230
 practices, 33
 primary language, 10, 192, 194–196, 238
- Literacy instruction and development. *See also* Reading
 in the cyber age, 228–29
 integrated with oracy, 194–96
 personal factors affecting, 194
 response and analysis skills, 213
- Literary response groups, 213
- Literature instruction. *See also* California English Language Arts Standards;
 Reading
 elementary, 156
 guided practice in reading, 256
 scaffolding, 156
 secondary, 156
- Literature in the Language Classroom* (Collie, Slater), 207
- Macroculture, 261, 264, 279
- Mainstream culture, U.S., 262, 265, 292, 295
- Making Content Comprehensible for English Language Learners: The SIOP Model* (Echevarria, Vogt, Short), 134
- MALDEF (Mexican American Legal Defense and Educational Fund), 90, 94
- Mandarin dual immersion program, 96
- Mandarin. *See* Chinese language
- Manipulatives, 30, 121, 130, 145, 150, 160, 251
- Massachusetts, English learners in, 306
- Mastery learning, 55
- Materials. *See also* Effective resources, ELD and SDAIE
 culturally appealing, 145
 selecting and modifying, 144–45, 207
- Mathematics instruction
 assessment in, 163
 content standards for, 89, 113
 language of, 153
 resources for, 160
 teaching strategies for, 155
- May 25 memorandum, 85
- Meaning, 26
- Meaning-centered approaches to SLA, 56–57
- Media literacy and oracy, 189
- Medicine, values about, 304
- Memory difficulties, 252
- Méndez v. Westminster School District*, 86, 120
- Mentoring, 147, 211
- Metacognition
 difficulties with, 252
 think-alouds as, 117
- Metacognitive strategies, 117
- Metalearning, 143
- Metalinguistic knowledge/awareness, 25, 196
- Metaphonological awareness, 196
- Metapragmatic awareness, 196
- Metasemantic awareness, 196
- Metastrategic knowledge, 195
- Metasyntactic awareness, 196
- Mexican American Legal Defense and Educational Fund (MALDEF), 90, 94
- Mexican immigrants, 116, 283, 307, 308
- Mexico, Mexican, Mexican Americans, 4–5, 90, 264, 266, 277, 282–85, 310. *See also* Hispanic Americans
 cultural values of, 301
- Meyer v. Nebraska*, 84
- Microcultures, 261–62, 266–67
- Migration and immigration, causes of, 283–86
- Migration in the U. S., 282–83, 285
 contemporary causes of, 283–86
- Migration Policy Institute, 283
- Mini-total physical response (TPR)-type lessons, 133
- Minorities
 castelike, 72–73, 79
 discrepancies in achievement, 274
 poverty among, 270
- Miss Nell Fell in the Well* (Whitman), 184
- Modality of language, 224–25
- Modeling, 120
- Model minority myth, 274–75
- Modifying instructional delivery, 122, 132–36
- Monitor hypothesis (Krashen), 56
- Monitor Model (Krashen), 56

- Morphemes, 22–23
 types of, 23
 use in teaching, 24
 Morphemic awareness, 201
 Morphology, 16, 22–24, 31
 word-formation processes, 23
 Motivation, 70
 Motor-control difficulties, 252
 Multicompetent language use, 49, 81, 91, 93
 Multicultural and global education, 311–12
 Multicultural literature, materials, 211
 transformative, 312
 Multimodalities, 152
 Multiple intelligences, 116, 161, 165
 Music instruction
 assessment in, 163
 content standards for, 113
 language of, 154
 resources for, 162
- Nadia, the Willful* (Alexander), 288
 Naming practices and forms of address, 65
 National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE), 12
 National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE), 112
 National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), 2, 271, 274
 National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs (NCELA), 2, 12
 National Council for Teachers of English (NCTE), 12
 National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM), 112
 National Education Association (NEA), 8
 National Origins Acts of 1924 and 1929, 285
 Native American languages, 82, 85, 91
 Native Americans, 83, 85, 266, 287, 314
 Native-English-speaking (NES) students, 81, 100, 109
 Native language rights, 7
 Native/non-native speaker interaction, 56, 61, 109–10
 Natural order hypothesis (Krashen), 56
 Navajo, 21, 85, 93, 293–94
 Nevada, English learners in, 306
 Newcomer programs, 100–101
 New literacies, 62–63
 New Mexico, English learners in, 3, 4
 New York City, English learners in, 4
 New York State, English learners in, 239
 New York State ESL Achievement Test (NYSESLAT), 238
- No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act, 88, 89, 232–33, 234
 Nonnative English Speaking Teachers (NNEST) in TESOL, 11
 Nonverbal communication, 40, 51, 261, 267
 body language, 40, 290–91, 321
 cultural diversity and, 290–92
 eye contact, 37, 40, 291
 facial expressions, 37, 40, 63, 268, 290, 321
 gestures, 37, 40, 63, 261, 291
 personal space, 40, 291, 292, 296, 301
 Nonverbal miscommunication, 261
 Note-taking skills, 157
Now One Foot, Now the Other (dePaola), 213
- Objectives
 content, 112, 120, 162, 228, 250
 language development, 111–12, 115, 162, 251
 learning-strategy, 107–8, 153, 158, 159, 160
 in lesson planning, 111–12
 Observation-based assessments, 247
 Observations
 anecdotal, 247
 to learn about culture, 315
 Occupation, values about, 308
 Office for Civil Rights, 85
 Olfactis, defined, 290
 Online teaching, 147–48
 On Your Own questions, 157
 Open Court, 55, 214
 Oracy
 connected to community, 189
 development in English-language, 167–90
 integrated with literacy, 189–90
 and media literacy, 189
 and Web 2.0, 189
 Oral history
 preserving, 322
 projects, 153
 Oral language development, 178–84
 using music for, 188
 Oral practice, 224
 Oral presentation, 33, 38
 holistic scoring assessment, 186
 Oral register shifts, 39
 Oral vs. written language, 294
 Orthographic shape, 204
 Ourselves as cultural beings, 296–98
 Outcome-based learning, 232
 Outcome-based performance assessments, 246
 Overachievement myth, 274–75
 Overreferral to special education, 276
- Pacific Islands, Pacific Islanders, 4, 98, 274, 282
 Paralanguage, 290
- Paraphrase, 134
 Paraprofessional educators, 255
 Parental rights, 104–5
 Parent involvement, 104, 322
 Parent(s). *See also* Family
 reporting assessment results to, 250
 school involvement model, 323–26
 -school relations, 322–27
 strategies for involvement, 324–25
 Parent support groups, 325
 Partial bilingualism, 50
 Participation, culturally preferred styles of, 76–77
 Participatory genres, 37
 Parts of speech, 226, 227
 Passivity, overcoming, 305
 Patterned language, 134
 Pedagogy
 for English learners, 109
 grammar-translation, 223–24
 reflective, 143
 sociocultural factors affecting SLA, 64, 65, 72, 78
 translanguaging, 170–71
 Peer response to writing, 220
 Performance-based test, 246
 Personal space, 40, 291, 292, 296, 301
 Philippines, 282, 283, 285
 Phonemes
 defined, 19
 development of, 50
 and dual language acquisition, 50
 in English, 17, 19–21
 in other languages, 19–20
 Phonemic
 awareness, 20, 195, 200, 201
 drills, 181
 early stage, 216
 sequences, 20
 variations, 19–20
 Phonetics, defined, 18
 Phonics, 202
 Phonological awareness, 20, 196
 Phonology, 16, 17, 18, 21–22
 intonation patterns, 22
 pitch, 21–22
 prosody, 22
 stress, 21
 Physical education instruction, 111, 113, 115
 Physical settings, 194
 Pitch, 21–22
 Placement
 services after, 254
 tests, 66, 240–41, 244
 Plagiarism, 221

- Planning for standards-based ELD
 instruction. *See also* English-language development (ELD)
 considerations when, 111
 content standards, 112
 language development objectives, 112, 114–16
 language standards, 114
 learning-strategy objectives, 112, 116
 objectives, 111–12, 114–16
 SDAIE, model for, 118–22
 standards-based content objectives, 112–14
 standards-based learning, 112
 strategic learning, 116
- Pluralism, 277
- Plyler v. Doe*, 88
- Poetry, 156
- Policy issues, 93–94
- Political and socioeconomic factors, 72–80
- Political clarity, 9, 79
- Political consciousness, 318–19
- Political factors in SLA, 78–80
 institutional racism, 79
 linguistic racism, 79
 political clarity, 79
- Politics
 of bilingual education, 91–93
 impact of ethnic, 269
 values about, 304–5
- Polynesian students, 305
- Portfolio assessments, 103, 247, 251
- Poverty
 among minority groups, 270
 and classism, 289
 cultural knowledge and, 264
- Power and authority, 296
- Power and status, issues, 269
- Practicality, in testing, 244
- Practice, guided and independent, 158–59
- Pragmatics
 features of school programs, evaluation, 41
 intercultural, 40, 41
 language context, 16, 18, 37–41
 register shifts, 41
- Prefixes, 24
- Prejudice, 287
 programs to combat, 288
- Preproduction stage of SLA, 51
- Prereading activities, 137, 203, 209
- Prewriting stage, 219
- Primary language
 explanation of concepts in, 134
 institutional support for, 81, 84, 145, 299
 instruction, 5, 10, 108, 110, 234, 237
 literacy level, 194–95
 literacy transfer, 195–96
 maintenance programs, 276
 Primary-language poetry, 156
 Prior knowledge, 148–52
 Privileged students, 9, 302
Professional Stranger: An Informal Introduction to Ethnography (Agar), 316
 Proficiency, level of, 196–97, 234, 235
 teaching of reading matched to, 209–10
 Proficiency levels in CELDT
 in the second language, 34, 66, 67
 Programs for English learners, 130–39
 Progress tracking, 243
 Pronunciation. *See also* Phonology
 computer-assisted practice, 184
 learning goal, 55
 self-correction, 182
 skills, developing, 184
 software, 184
 standard, 43
 teaching, 181–82, 181–84
 word-level, 181
 Proposition 187 in California, 88
 Proposition 227 in California, 88, 90
 Proxemics, defined, 290
 Psychological factors in SLA, 65–72
 anxiety level, 70–71
 cognitive, 71–72
 learner's attitude, 71
 learner's background, 65–68
 learning strategies, 72
 motivation, 70
 self-esteem, enhancing, 68–70
 social-emotional, 68–71
 Publishing, 105, 221, 325
 desktop, 146, 221
 Puerto Rico, Puerto Ricans, 4, 5, 83, 233, 236, 282
 Pull-out ELD, 102
- Question-answer relationships (QAR)
 model, 157
 Questioning strategies, 34–36, 59
 Questionnaires of students' interests, 247–48, 316
- Questions
 Author and You, 157
 before beginning, 149
 differentiated by proficiency level, 34–36, 248
 for generating interest, 149
 independent strategies, 159
 intercultural differences in, 293
 nature of, 293
- On Your Own, 157
 open-ended, 136, 189
 to promote reflection, 136
 right there, 157
 self-exploratory, 298
 think and search, 157
- Racism, 287
 ELD and ELA standards in, 198
 institutional, 79, 289
 lesson plans, types, 228, 229
 linguistic, 39, 79
 programs to combat, 288–89
 teaching against, 288
- Reading. *See also* Literacy instruction and development
 adaptations, 214
 after (beyond), 208
 aloud, 204
 before (into), 206–7
 comprehension, 208–12
 concepts about print, 200–201
 decoding, 202–3
 differentiated strategies for proficiency level, 115
 during (while), 207–8
 ELD and ELA standards in, 198
 emergent, 200
 fluency development, 203–6
 intervention need, 213–14
 methods, 208
 processes, 206–8
 purposes for, 198–99
 standards-based, 199
 strategies matched to proficiency level, 209–10
 text genres in, 211
 transfer of skills in, 199
 vocabulary development in, 198, 205, 234
 word analysis skills in, 199–203
- Reading/Language Arts Framework, 102, 234, 242
- Reading Mastery, 214
- Realia, 120, 121, 130
- Receptive language difficulties, 252
- Recitation pattern, in the classroom, 33–36
 IRE pattern, 34
 IRE sequence, 33–34
 IRF pattern, 33, 35
 questioning strategies, 34–36
- Recognition, from letter to word, 203
- Redesignation/Reclassification/Exit of English learners, 243
- Referrals, 104, 240, 276
- Reflective pedagogy, 110, 143
- Register, in the classroom, 30, 38–39

- Register shifts, 38–39, 41
- Relational organizers, 139
- Relationships
 - home-school, 322–23
 - positive, 295–96
 - sound-symbol, 252
- Reliability of tests, 233, 244
- Religion, values about, 304–5
- Repetition, 134
- Representative/explanatory organizers, 138
- Resistance towards schooling, 81
- Resources
 - for independent practice, 159–62
 - for independent research, 159
 - internet, 160–61
 - for math, 160
 - for music, 162
 - for science, 162
 - in SDAIE, 143–48
 - for secondary English learners, 160
 - technological, 145–48
- Respect, promoting mutual, 314
- Response. *See also* Recitation pattern, in the classroom
 - affective-emotional, 65
 - to literature, 257–59
 - in the recitation pattern, 33–34
- Response to instruction (RTI) model, 213–14
- Reteaching, 110
- Retention of information difficulties, 252
- Retention/promotion policies, 293
- Revitalization of languages, 93
- Right there questions, 157
- Rios v. Read*, 87
- Risk-taking, 211–12
- Rites, rituals, and ceremonies, values
 - about, 302
- Role of students, 76
- Role of teachers, 76
- Roles in society, values about, 306
- Rubrics
 - developing, 163, 248
 - to record performance, 251
 - scoring, 248
 - for self- and peer assessment, 245
- Russian, Russian immigrants, 284, 294
- Sanctuary cities, 286
- Scaffolding
 - assessments, 252
 - strategies, 137
 - temporary support for learning, 136–37
- Schema building, 120
- School, culturally receptive, 278
- School-community partnerships, 105
- School dress codes, 302, 305
- Schooling. *See also* Students
 - community involvement in, 319
 - culturally responsive, 317, 318
 - family involvement in, 319
 - limited role of students in, 76
- Schools
 - academic achievement of minorities in, 94
 - community partnership in governance of, 326
 - culturally sustaining, 280
- Science instruction
 - content standards in, 108, 113
 - language of, 153
 - planning for, 116
 - scaffolding in, 197–98
- SDAIE. *See* Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE)
- Secondary migration, 285
- Second-language acquisition (SLA), 49–80.
 - See also* First-language acquisition; Historical theories of SLA
 - age-related ability for, 48
 - audiolingualism in, 54, 55
 - behaviorism, 55
 - brain-based learning in, 63–64
 - cognitive factors of, 71–72
 - commonalities with first-language acquisition, 51–52
 - communication strategies for, 59–60
 - communicative competence, 56, 59
 - communicative language teaching, 56, 58–59
 - constructivist views of, 61–62
 - factors that influence, 64–80
 - grammar-translation methodology, 54
 - historical theories of, 54–57
 - interactionist model of, 56
 - levels, 116, 196–97, 234
 - meaning-centered approaches to, 56–57
 - monitor model of (Krashen), 56
 - multimedia-based approaches, 62–63
 - new literacies, 62–63
 - semiotics, 62–63
 - social constructionist views of, 62
 - sociocultural views of, 60–61
 - stages of, 51
 - structural linguistics in, 54
 - theories and models of, 53–64
 - Total Physical Response (TPR) method, 55
- Segregated schools, 75, 268, 275–76
- Segregation, 92, 94, 101, 234, 271, 275, 289, 290
- Self-esteem, 8, 56, 68–70, 71, 313
- Self-reflection, 297
- Self-study, cultural, 297
- Semantic challenges, 27–28
- Semantic knowledge, 204
- Semantics, 26–28, 30
- Semantic shifts, 17, 30
- Semiotics, 62–63
- Sensorimotor
 - abilities, 69
 - skills, 195
- Separate underlying proficiency (SUP), 51–52
- Sequential organizers, 138
- Serna v. Portales Municipal Schools*, 87
- Sheltered instruction in SDAIE, 99, 108
- Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP), 118, 122, 134
- Sight words, 202
- Silence, role of, 292–93
- Silent period, 34, 51, 136, 173
- Simultaneous dual-language acquisition, 50
- SIOP. *See* Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol
- Skill with print, 245
- SLA. *See* Second-language acquisition (SLA)
- Social-affective learning strategies, 72, 117, 251
- Social class, values about, 307
- Social class inequality, 75
- Social constructionist views of language learning, 62
- Social-emotional factors, 68–72
- Social-emotional functioning
 - difficulties, 253
- Social justice, literacies, 193
- Social stratification, 42, 43, 78
- Social studies instruction
 - adapting curriculum in, 153, 164–65
 - assessment in, 163–64
 - building background knowledge in, 148
 - collaboration in, 157
 - content standards in, 113
 - Internet resources for, 160–61
 - language of, 153–54
 - scaffolding technique for, 156–57
- Sociocultural and political factors,
 - influencing instruction, 72–80
 - family acculturation and use of first and second languages, 72–75
 - family values and school values, 74–75
 - institutional support for primary language, 75–78
 - political factors, 78–80
 - social-class inequality, 75
 - sociocultural support for L1 in the classroom environment, 78
 - structures in schools that affect student learning, 74–75, 76–78

- Sociocultural consciousness, 318–19
- Sociolinguistic competence, 168
- Software, instructional, 146–48
- SOLOM (Student Oral Language Observation Matrix), 67
- “Something to Declare” (Alvarez), 241
- Sound-symbol relationships, 252
- Sources of information, 316–17
- Space
- “Hidden Messages” (Suina), 302
 - personal, 40, 291, 292
 - values about, 301–2
- Spanish language, 8, 91, 236
- Spanish-speaking English learners, 4
- Speakers, distance between, 291
- Speaking
- activities for, 188
 - assessment of, 186–87
 - conversation-friendly environment, 180
 - in the ELD standards, 178
 - fluency practice in, 181
 - games and tasks, 188
 - instructional conversation, 36–37
 - media literacy promoting, 189
 - oral practice, 55, 178
 - process, 184–90
 - pronunciation, teaching, 181–84
 - public, 44, 179
 - resources for spoken discourse, 180–81
 - show and tell, 180
 - situations for, 179–80
 - strategies for, 179, 185
- Special education and CLD learners
- academic and learning problems in, 276
 - early intervention, 253–54
 - identification, 253
 - overreferral of, 276
 - referral process, 253
 - services after placement, 254
 - teaching strategies for, 254–56
- Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE), 108–64, 179, 242, 254, 276. *See also* Sheltered Instruction in SDAIE
- addressing needs of English learners, 108
 - bridging in, 148
 - comprehensibility in, 118, 120, 134, 145
 - connections in, 120
 - in content domains, 112, 154
 - content objectives in, 120
 - enhanced, 100, 102, 109
 - instructional planning and organization for, 108–22
 - interaction in, 120–22
 - language contextualization in, 132
 - language development, 100, 114, 122
 - lesson plans, fundamental elements, 110
 - model for, 118–22
 - modifying materials for, 145
 - in newcomer programs, 100–101
 - skills, 99, 100
 - strategies, 10, 122–43
 - in structured English immersion programs, 99–100
 - teacher attitude and, 119
 - techniques, 100, 101, 108
- Speech
- adjustment, by teacher, 119, 120
 - emergence stage of SLA, 51
 - modification, by teacher, 132, 133–34
 - working with parts of, 226, 227
- Speech sounds. *See* Phonology
- Spelling, developmental, 248, 261
- Spoken discourse. *See* Speaking
- Stages of second-language acquisition, 66, 70
- Standard English, modeling and teaching, 41–42, 44–45
- Standardized testing, 74, 88–89, 92
- Standards
- content, 107, 112–14, 120, 250–51
 - for ELD and ELA development, 234–37
 - ELD and ELA reading, 198
 - in lesson planning, 112
- Standards-based
- assessment and instruction, 236
 - content objectives, 112–14
 - learning, 111–12
- Standards-based instruction, advantages and disadvantages, 236–37
- State-adopted tests
- for English-language proficiency, 238
 - under Federal testing mandates, 237–38
- State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR), 233
- Status and power, issues, 269
- Status, values about, 306
- Stereotyping, 287–88
- Story retelling, 186
- Strategic competence, 59, 168
- Strategic group, 242
- Stress (word), 22, 173, 181–82
- Structural assimilation, 278
- Structural linguistics, 54
- Structured English immersion (SEI), 5, 10, 90, 99–100, 132
- Student Oral Language Observation Matrix (SOLOM), 67
- Students
- educating about diversity, 311–14
 - high expectations for, 318
 - limited role of, 76
 - motivating, 318
 - sociocultural consciousness, 318
 - as sources of information, 316
 - voices, 271, 319
- Subtractive bilingualism, 49, 98–101
- Suffixes, 24
- Summative assessments, 110, 143, 162, 241, 242, 245
- Support for Schooling, 319–20
- Syllables, 20–21, 22, 23
- splitting, 195
 - stress and pitch, 181
- Symbolic-structural violence, 290
- Synonyms, 27
- in apposition, 205
- Syntactic proficiency, 23
- Syntax, 24–26
- English contrasted with Chinese, 26
 - English contrasted with Spanish, 26
 - teaching of, 25–26, 322
 - working with, 226
- Tagalog, 12
- Taiwan/Taiwanese, 6, 65, 286, 308
- TAKS. *See* Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS)
- Task-based learning (TBL), 58
- Teacher commitment, 166
- Teacher expectations, 8, 41, 295, 318
- Teacher-fronted classroom, 34, 36, 120
- Teacher preparation for ESOL, 10–13
- Teachers
- activating connections to previous knowledge, 128–30
 - attitude towards students, 71, 119, 313, 315
 - challenges for, 7
 - instructional delivery, 122, 132–36
 - as intercultural educators, 9, 321, 336
 - limited role of, 77
 - participating in growth relationships, 298
 - professional preparation of, 10–13
 - self-study of, 297
 - value system, 300–310
- Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), 6, 10, 11, 12
- Teacher-student interactions, 295–96
- Teacher talking time (TTT), 134
- Teaching assistants, 213, 254, 272
- Teaching for Change, 314
- Teaching grammar, 226–77
- Teaching styles, 295
- Teaching with Integrity model, 7–10
- Teaching with SDAIE strategies, 122–43. *See also* Cooperative learning; Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE)
- Team-teaching. *See* Collaboration

- Technological resources, 145–48
 computer-supported learning, 146–48
 tools for instruction and communication, 146
- Telegraphic speech, 49
- TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), 6, 10, 11, 12
- Test accommodation, 250
- Test anxiety, 244
- Test content, problematic, 244
- Testing English learners, issues of fairness, 243–45
- Testing. *See* Assessments
- Tests. *See also* Assessments
 practicality of, 244
 reliability of, 244
 validity of, 244
- Test time, limitations, 244
- Texas, English learners in, 2, 4, 233, 282
- Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS), 233
- Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS), 238, 239
- Texas English Language Proficiency Standards, 178
- Textbook tests, 245
- Text genres, 211
- Think aloud, 117, 158, 207, 210, 244
- Think and search questions, 157
- Time
 concepts of, 40
 values about, 301
- Title III. *See* No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act
- Tone languages, 21
- Top-down systems (SLA), 57
- Total Physical Response (TPR) method, 55
- Tracking, 76
- Transfers
 language, 195–96
 of primary-language literacy, 195–96
- Transformational grammar, 55–56
- Transformative multicultural education, 312
- Transformative pedagogy, 58
- Transforming Education for Hispanic Youth: Exemplary Practices, Programs, and Schools* (Lockwood, Secada), 274
- Transitional bilingual education (TBE), 98–99
- Translanguaging, 60, 170, 217
 encouraging dual-language in instruction, 192
 natural, 170, 171
 official, 170, 171
 pedagogy, 170–71
 perspective, 170–71
- Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, 83, 159
- Tuck Everlasting* (Babbitt), 144
- Turn-taking, 32, 35, 125
- Two-way (dual) immersion (TWI) programs, 2, 81, 92, 96–98
- Two-way parent-school involvement model, 323
- Types of bilingualism, 49–50
- Underachievement, 272–74
- Universal access to language arts curriculum, 102–3
- Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 84, 288
- Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights, 84
- Universal Design for Learning (UDL), 102–3
 principles of, 103
- Unz initiative. *See* Proposition 227 in California
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 273
- U.S. Census Bureau, 4, 270, 281
- U.S. Department of Education, 96, 282
- U.S. Department of Education Office of Planning, Evaluation and Policy Development Policy and Program Studies Service, 272
- Validity
 empirical, 244
 of tests, 244
- Value, defined, 300
- Values. *See also* Cultural values
 about age-appropriate activities, 307–8
 about child-rearing, 308–9
 about cooperation and competition, 309–10
 of cultural diversity, 281, 294
 about dress and appearance, 302
 about economics, law, politics, and religion, 304–5
 about education, 305
 of family and school, 74–75
 about food preferences, 309
 about gender, 306–7
 about humanities and the arts, 309
 about medicine, health and hygiene, 304
 about occupations, 308
 oppositional, 80
 about rites, rituals, and ceremonies, 302–3
 about roles and status, 306
 about social class, 307
 about space, 301–2
 of the teacher and cultural accommodation, 300–310
 about time, 301
 about work and leisure, 303
- Verbal rehearsal, 151
- Vietnam, Vietnamese, 3–5, 262, 265, 281, 296, 306
- Violence, symbolic-structural, 314
- Visual arts instruction
 assessment in, 163
 content standards for, 113
 language in, 154
- Visual cueing, 151
- Vocabulary
 academic, 29, 67, 131
 acquiring, 28–29
 and concept development, 202
 content, 101, 145, 153
 development, 151, 198, 202, 204–6
 knowledge, 28–29, 205
 pre-teaching, 151–52, 206, 229
 in reading, 249–250
 in writing, 205
- Ways with Words* (Heath), 292
- Web 2.0 and oracy, 189
- White (race), 4, 9, 78, 92, 270–71, 273–76, 289
- Whole language theory, 56–57
- Wiki page, 223
- Williams et al. v. the State of California et al.*, 88, 90–91, 94, 104
- Willingness to be fully human, 7
- Wind in the Willows, The* (Mole), 203
- Word-analysis skills, 199–200
- Word bank, 219
- Word-formation processes, 23, 205
- Word order, 25, 108, 133–34, 200, 224
- Word/Vocabulary knowledge
 academic, 29
 acquiring technical, 205
 teaching, 29
 types of, 28
- Word wall, 219
- Work and leisure, values about, 303
- “Worksheets Don’t Grow Dendrites: 20 Instructional Strategies that Engage the Brain” (Tate), 63
- World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) standards, 234–36
- Writing
 adaptations for English learners, 221–22
 conferences, 220
 development for young English learners, stages, 216–17
 drafting in, 219
 editing of, 220
 and English learners, 215–23
 error correction in, 220–21
 expository prose, 218
 feedback on, 220
 Generation 1.5 and, 215–16

- Writing (*continued*)
 genres and prompts, 218
 for grammar, 226–27
 handwriting in English, 217
 internet in, 221–23
 issues with ESL, 221
 narrative prose, 218
 in the native language, importance of, 217
 peer response in, 220
 plagiarism in, 221
 prewriting, 219
 processes of, 219
 publishing, 221
 revision in, 219
 self-correction and revising
 in, 219
 as social construction, 216
 stages in, 216–17
 strategies in, 221–22
 workshop, 218–19
Written discourse, 32
Written vs. oral language, 294
Zone of proximal development (ZOPD), 62